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ABSTRACT

Papers included are: (1) "The Mountain Yet To Be Climbed" (D. Siedentop); (2) "Collaboration between Researchers and Practitioners: Myth, Mirth, or Melody" (L. Lambert); (3) "The Recognition and Reward Structure in Higher Education in the United States--A Major Inhibitor to Collaboration bewteen Researcher and Practitioner" (J. Razor and J. Willis); (4) "Collaboration between Researchers and Practitioners: A Case for Self-Collaboration" (D. Hellison); (5) "Teaching and Learning Together: A Joint Effort by a Physical Education Specialist and a University Professor To Develop a Model Physical Education Program" (T. Ratliffe and L. Ratliffe); (6) "From Cooperation to Collaboration: A Case Study" (B. W. Pissanos and Others); (7) "From the Beginning: The Multiple Realities of Collaborative Projects Involving Physical Educators from Schools and Colleges" (D. Coffin); (8) "Cultural Considerations for Collaboration" (L. Fiorentino); (9) "The Bohemia Project: Tapping the Collaborative Potential" (K. Graber and Others); (10) "The Coexistence of Research and Program Development in Collaborative Settings" (W. Anderson and Others); (11) "Collaborative Efforts between the Ohio State University and Columbus Public Schools To Assist Teachers" (S. Stroot); (12) "A Collaborative Approach to Practica Based Teacher Preparation: The Nebraska-Lincoln Model" (T. Sharpe and Others); (13) "The Niagara Falls Physical Education Project: A Retrospective on a Program Assistance and Staff Development Model" (G. Barrette and Others); (14) "Project Scope: An Urban Partnership Venture--Descriptions and Predictions" (L. Catelli and W. Nix); (15) "Inviting Collaboration in Teacher Education" (R. Bell); (16) "Building a Bridge through Teamwork--A Korean Case" (S. Kang); (17) "Collaborative Research and Professional Development in Physical Education: Preliminary Findings into a Teacher Development Program in New Zealand" (D. G. Salter); (18) "Teaching Physical Education Teachers in the Federal Republic of Germany: A Collaborative Enterprise" (R. Naul); (19) "Folk Dance Practitioners and Dance Ethnologists: A Happy Marriage or Uneasy Affair" (M. Padfield); (20) "Toward a Real Partnership between Practitioners and Researchers in Physical Education" (P. Desrosiers); (21) "Measuring Partnership Outcomes in Teaching Physical Education: A Behavioral Approach" (H. van der Mars and P. Darst); (22) "Ideological, Behavioral and Structural Facilitators for Collaboration among Researchers and Practitioners" (H. Lawson); and (23) "The Many Faces of Sport as a Challenge for Sport Pedagogy and Physical Education" (W. Brettschneider). (IAH)

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Collaboration Between Researchers and Practitioners in Physical Education: An International Dialogue

Proceedings from the 1991 AIESEP - NAPEHE World Congress
Atlanta, Georgia, USA

George M. Graham and Margaret A. Jones
Editors

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Association nationale des enseignants d'éducation physique dans l'enseignement supérieur
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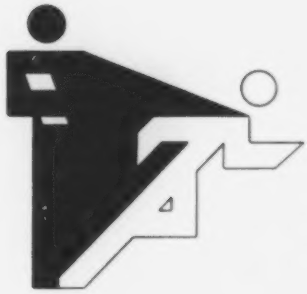

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Preface

On four foggy, cloudy, sometimes rainy days, over 500 physical educators from throughout the world gathered in Atlanta, Georgia. Representatives from 27 different countries began the year of 1991 discussing the theme of the World Congress, "Collaboration between Researchers and Practitioners: An International Dialogue," and other topics that were introduced in the 200 papers that were presented between January 4-7.

This was an historic meeting because it was co-sponsored by two professional associations -- Association Internationales des Ecoles Superieres d'Education Physique (AIESEP) and the National Association for Physical Education in Higher Education (NAPEHE). Thus the instigation of the conference itself represented an important example of the possibilities of collaboration.

Collaboration between researchers and practitioners, the theme of the conference, was a popular theme explored from many viewpoints throughout the Congress. Some chose to focus on the practical difficulties of collaboration, others on the challenges, some described their successes with collaboration. 35 of the presentations were conducted by practitioner-researcher teams who reflected on their efforts and shared their insights related to collaboration. Unfortunately, it is not possible to include all of the papers that were presented at the Congress in these proceedings. For this reason we chose to include papers that focused on the Congress theme as a way of preserving the important insights and analyses that were offered about collaboration between researchers and practitioners in physical education. These proceedings are organized into six sections.

The initial section is entitled "The Challenges" and commences with the first major paper (Siedentop) outlining many of the major challenges related to collaboration. The next two papers define additional challenges as viewed from the perspective of a practitioner (Lambert) and from higher education (Razor and Willis).

The second section of the Proceedings presents six papers that describe how various individuals are meeting the challenge of collaboration from their personal perspectives. It begins with the concept of self-collaboration (Hellison) followed by a personal, and powerful, testimony of the difficulties that can be faced when trying to implement a collaborative model (Ratliffe and Ratliffe). The next paper (Pissanos, Allison and Frederick) describes a collaborative organization using a case-study approach. Coffin, Fiorentino, and Graber, Schemmp and Kelsh provide additional insights into the complexities of the collaborative process from a perspective that can be provided only by those who have truly been immersed in the process.

Obviously institutions attempt to find ways to support and encourage collaboration, which is the theme of the third section in the proceedings. Collaborative models from six different universities and school districts are described and placed in a theoretical perspective. The section commences with a description of insights gained from collaborative projects conducted under the auspices of the Physical Education Development Center at Teachers College, Columbia University (Anderson, McCleery, Schwager, Petersen, Veal and Doolittle). It is followed by programs housed at The Ohio State University (Stroot), the University of Nebraska-Lincoln (Sharpe, Bahls, Seagren and Wolfe), the Niagra Falls School District and Adelphi University (Barrette, Bradt, Hagan, King and Penale), Queens College (Catelli and Nix), and the University of Victoria (Bell).

Section 5 in the proceedings presents an international perspective (given that the Congress was held in the United States) on collaboration. It begins with a perspective from Korea (Kang), New Zealand (Salter), Germany (Naul), and the only description of collaboration in dance (Padfield) written by a Canadian author.

"Is it working?" is an inevitable question that must be asked, and answered, about any enterprise in education. The two papers in Section 6 provide insights about measuring the success of collaborative enterprises. Desrosiers discusses the skills needed by researchers and practitioners to truly study and understand collaboration. It is followed by a description of a behavioral approach to measuring partnership outcomes (van der Mars and Darst).

The final section contains insights related to the question, "What happens if we don't meet the challenge?". In the concluding paper of the Congress, Lawson provides a straightforward analysis of how collaboration can be facilitated -- and the consequences of not doing so.

We are fortunate to conclude these proceedings with an abbreviated version of the Cagigal Memorial Lecture presented by Brettschneider. The Cagigal Lecture is an invited lecture presented at each AIESEP meeting in honor of the late Jose Maria Cagigal, who was killed in a plane crash on the way to an AIESEP meeting. The title of the 1991 lecture was "The Many Faces of Sport as a Challenge for Sport Pedagogy and Physical Education."

Unfortunately budget constraints prohibited us from including more of the excellent papers that were presented at the Congress as part of these Proceedings. Budget limitations also explain in part why the Proceedings were not available sooner as we had to fit the project within the constraints, both timelines and printing formats (which explains the occasional misplaced hyphen), of a university word-processing center (Virginia Tech). In this regard we are greatly indebted to the staff at Virginia Tech's Word Processing Center for the meticulous, patient and professional manner in which they handled this project. A debt of gratitude is also owed to all of those individuals who served on the various committees of the Congress. Many of them are named in this document, many more are not. A special thanks to Georgia State University for housing and giving technical support for the International Folk Dance Workshop. In addition, gratitude is extended to Cobb County School System for its technical support as well as the members of the Georgia Association for Health, Physical Education, Recreation and Dance and the Georgia institutions of higher learning in Physical Education for assisting in the hosting of the Congress itself. On behalf of all who attended the Congress I want to thank everyone who contributed to making this Congress such an enormous success.

Finally, as the author of the preface, I would be remiss if I didn't express my enormous appreciation and admiration to Margaret (Peg) Jones who labored so diligently to bring this Congress to life. The Congress was your dream -- and you made it happen. There is a Latin phrase, *ut prosim*, which means "to serve." Through this Congress, and the many other conferences and meetings that you have organized over the years, you truly epitomize the meaning of *ut prosim*. Some of us make our contribution to the profession through our teaching, others through scholarship. Clearly you make your contribution to the profession through service -- and as a result those of us who attended the Congress have been enlightened and stimulated -- we are most grateful.

George Graham
Blacksburg, Virginia

Section 1. The Challenges

The Mountain Yet To Be Climbed
Daryl Siedentop

To say the very least, collaboration is a hot topic in the education world as we enter the last decade of the 20th century. The 1988 JTPE monograph on collaboration forecasted this trend. A 1988 issue of the Journal of Teacher Education focused on school and university collaboration, while a 1989 issue focused on preparing more reflective practitioners. The theme of the summer 1990 *Theory Into Practice* was "Teacher as Researcher." Nearly every current model for or comment on teacher education has the reflective practitioner as a main focus. Linda Bain (1990) has recently suggested that collaborative action research represents an important model for critical pedagogy in physical education. AIESEP and NAPAHE have jointly sponsored this conference on collaboration between researchers and practitioners. This focus on collaboration, it appears to me, has been promoted primarily by university people. If it is a bandwagon, and I sincerely hope it is not, it is one that has been started by and is currently driven by the university research and teacher education establishment. I have seen no evidence that collaboration with university researchers ranks high on the agendas of teachers.

Collaborative Models for Program Development and Teacher Preparation

I must say my preparation for this paper would have been easier if the conference theme was collaboration between teacher/coach educators and practitioners in physical education and sport rather than between researchers and practitioners. There are a number of important, ongoing collaborative models focusing on program development and practitioner preparation in our field, some of which are highlighted at this conference. There are an increasing number of collaborative models for teacher education in America, many of which developed as part of post-baccalaureate programs utilizing professional development schools. I believe that these collaborative efforts for program development and practitioner preparation have a chance to succeed for three reasons.

First, the practitioner is *the expert* when it comes to program implementation and mentoring interns. Particularly in the practitioner-preparation process, the on-site teacher/coach has sufficient credibility to balance somewhat the unequal statuses that, I believe, typically attach to the roles of professor and teacher when research is the focus for collaboration.

Second, collaboration in the practitioner-preparation process allows the teacher and teacher educator to focus jointly on a third person, the intern, rather than on the work of the teacher, which is typically the focus in collaborative research. This reduces risk for both parties.

Third, the recognition of practitioner expertise has led universities and school districts to establish *institutional* arrangements in which the contingencies defining the collaborative model are negotiated and codified, thus clarifying and to some extent balancing the roles. Most of these institutional-collaboration models focus on practitioner preparation while fewer focus on ongoing program development and still fewer try to encompass both. For reasons that will become clear in my comments, I do not believe that these conditions -- practitioner expertise/status, reduced risk through focus on interns, or institutional arrangements -- typically exist in collaborative efforts focused on research.

The Teacher as Researcher

Much of the current emphasis on *research* collaboration derives from a model of the teacher as researcher, a view attributed to the impetus provided by Stenhouse's (1975) proposal that teachers should be curriculum researchers and developers. This teacher-researcher notion has taken a somewhat different and broader focus in the recent education reform movement with its emphasis on the teacher as a reflective practitioner. The goal of preparing a more reflective teacher derives partially at least from the widespread acceptance of the assumption that American teachers are unreflective in their work, operating too frequently as thoughtless technicians. Like many assumptions made by education critics, there is little evidence to support such a view, more thoughtful critics having recognized that the degree to which American teachers are unreflective is a function of their work context rather than any inherent lack of desire, lack of talent for reflection, or inadequacies in their preparation. University-based educators have, nonetheless, widely accepted that assumption. It permeates the teacher education reform literature -- and while action research preceded those concerns it has been brought forward as a primary model for collaboration between researchers and practitioners.

I am not here to criticize action research or any efforts between university and school based educators to collaborate for purposes of program development, practitioner preparation, or research. I applaud them all and wish them well. Efforts towards improved collegiality are not easy, however, and that is why I chose "the mountain yet to be climbed" as the title for these remarks.

I do believe that research collaboration as it is currently operationalized has a nether-side and that in our rush to embrace it we may neglect some of the existing institutional factors that functionally prohibit any real progress toward practitioner participation in research or professional preparation.

The Lifespace of the Teacher

The first point I'd like to make is this: *The largest obstacle to initiating and sustaining collaborative research is that the current context of schools provides no compelling reason for practitioners to engage in "research," particularly as it is defined and rewarded in the university. In fact, the normative contingencies which operate in schools are inhospitable for teacher-researchers.*

The fair way to frame the prospects for collaboration between researchers and practitioners is to do so within the ordinary lifespace of the teacher. Roland Barth (1990) argues that the image which most fully captures the life of an adult working in schools is "a tennis shoe in a laundry dryer" -- life is turbulent, lonely, confused, often disoriented, sometimes heated, and full of recurring bumps. This homely metaphor accurately reflects the accumulated research evidence of the past 30 years, from the seminal work of Jackson (1968) and Lortie (1975) to recent work in our own field. Physical education practitioners too often feel isolated professionally, lonely in their work, powerless to alter the basic conditions of that work, alienated from those who administer their work, and frustrated by the non-teaching demands placed on them.

What is most troubling is that this description fits both the teachers in the JOPER "Profiles of Struggle" issue (Locke & Griffin, 1986) and some of the teachers in our JPTE "Effective Elementary Specialist Study" (Siedentop, 1989). There are differences in how that image fits these two disparate samples, to be sure, but they are differences of degree rather than kind.

Physical education teachers have 20-28 contact teaching hours per week, 8-10 hours of attached professional time devoted to tasks ranging from IEP conferences to intramurals to playground duty. They have no support services for research, no funding mechanisms, and neither monetary nor status incentives for completing research. It also appears that there are strong disincentives for such efforts within the school culture (Sparkes, 1990), a too often neglected factor which reinforces the more general insight that when teachers reveal themselves as adult learners, as they must do in collaborative research, it is often considered by colleagues to be self-indulgent and an admission of deficiency (Barth, 1990).

Many who have engaged in collaborative research and promoted action research among teachers have noted the problem of finding time for teachers to participate in research projects. Almond and Thorpe (1988) commented that the teachers with whom they collaborated, who worked in a school environment that encouraged reflection, still had difficulty finding time for their projects: "This feature of the project raises the very practical question of how the so-called average teacher can set aside time to engage in critical reflection of his or her practice" (p. 226). McCutcheon and Jung (1990) argue that action research can't go on regularly without a support system which includes time, recognition, money, and encouragement. Cochran-Smith and Lytle (1990) concur that teacher-research cannot succeed without support mechanisms such as reduced loads, released time, paid overtime, collaborative networks and study groups, opportunities to visit other practitioners, financial support for research projects, and channels to disseminate findings.

I would argue that current trends in schools make the ordinary lifespace of teachers even less hospitable to collaborative research efforts, because the school-based support mechanisms are more likely to be diminishing than expanding. The American mania for deregulation has reached schooling, accompanied as it usually is by union-busting efforts that threaten to erode teachers' rights and support for professional growth each time a master contract is renegotiated. Teachers, in order to protect their wages and direct fringe benefits, find themselves giving ground on released time, class loads, visitation days, financial support for professional travel, and many of the other supports within which a climate for teacher research might eventually develop. The problems for teachers in a marginal subject matter like physical education are typically exacerbated by these trends.

Universities, on the other hand, have arranged an increasingly powerful set of contingencies to promote research by professors, particularly that kind of research that leads to publication in peer-reviewed journals. Professors typically have from 4-12 contact hours of teaching per week, strong monetary and status rewards for research productivity, a relative abundance of research support services, and varied sources for research funding. Yet even with these more favorable contingencies, many university faculty find it difficult to produce one peer-reviewed research publication per year.

When one reads the literature on collaboration, especially the growing literature on action research, it is clear that the impetus for initiating and sustaining collaborative research and the main elements of a tenuous support system both emanate from the university -- in the form of course credit, recognition from faculty and peers within courses, regular visitations from faculty, and technical support from university resources.

When university faculty provide both the impetus and a large share of the support system for collaborative research with practitioners, it tips an already unbalanced set of status roles even more toward the researcher. George Graham (1988) used the metaphor of marriage to characterize collaborative research, emphasizing the voluntary engagement of the two parties and the hard work necessary to sustain the relationship. I'd like to extend that metaphor and suggest that if collaborative research is like a marriage, it is at the moment particularly like a "modern" marriage in which university faculty occupy the male role and practitioners the female role, regardless of actual genders.

Although marital relations today are supposedly liberated compared to traditional arrangements, strong role-expectations linger. The university professor is typically the "lover," assuming the traditional male role of initiating contact, wooing the practitioner into a relationship. Since this is to be "modern marriage," the wooing is subtle. Professors go out of their way to avoid actually posing questions and prescribing solutions for the practitioner, nonetheless sometimes exerting subtle domination over the direction of the relationship, especially if course credit is involved in the "prenuptuals."

Too often, from my view, the relationship that follows in this marriage of collaboration is one in which the practitioner takes on the "emancipated female" role that many began to analyze and subsequently criticize years ago. Practitioners who wed themselves to a researcher often assume additional burdens, beyond their heavy workloads, analogous to the child-rearing and household duties assumed by working mothers, while the person occupying the male role offers support and advice -- and often benefits from the fruits of the arrangement. Like the career-oriented, married female who ends up with two full-time jobs, the practitioner who sustains a collaborative research relationship with university faculty often does so at tremendous cost. It is no wonder then, that Candy Norton (1988), from the viewpoint of a State Department official, warned university faculty to avoid paternalism in their collaborative efforts with practitioners. I would argue that the roles are fraught with paternalistic characteristics that are difficult to overcome in the current context of the two institutions.

I am not suggesting that researchers do not recognize the unequal statuses and the dangers appertaining thereto. Quite the contrary, the literature on collaboration is full of warnings about these dangers and suggestions for minimizing them. In action research particularly there is what van Mannen (1990) calls the "democracy assumption," evidence of which is the degree to which action researchers seek egalitarian relationships with their practitioner-partners, describing themselves as "process facilitators" or "project collaborators," sometimes even actively resisting attempts by practitioners to get advice in order to break down the perceived expert-novice statuses in the roles.

To the extent that researchers, and the institutions they represent, can help to improve the work context of practitioners, collaborative efforts will be more likely to endure. Some of this can be achieved temporarily by generating research funds that are allocated to released time for practitioners and support for them to participate in research efforts. In the long run, however, the time and support for reflection and action research in schools must be institutionalized within the workplace. As Lieberman and Miller (1990) have suggested: "To be successful, the researcher sensibility must be infused in the dailiness of school." In all honesty, I see little effort from researchers to help to change the nature of the workplace we call school.

As we proceed with our efforts at collaboration, as I hope we will, we must remain cognizant of the fact that university and school people each come to collaboration burdened with what Barth (1990) calls "bad baggage." He quotes a Boston area practitioner who when asked to serve on a Harvard University education committee said: "Harvard makes me feel like a scorned lover. You people from Harvard have come before. You just ask a lot of questions, then leave and write a lot of criticism. You don't help, you just take our time." This "baggage of the past" that we each bring to new efforts at collaboration must be dealt with if we are to move forward: In new efforts in schools we must first deal with the wounds left from previous efforts.

Alternate Forms of Collaboration

My second main point is that *collaboration can take many forms other than the egalitarian ideal typically assumed in action research.* Collaboration means to work together; to cooperate. It does not necessarily mean that the roles among the collaborators have to be egalitarian. University and school physical educators can collaborate in ways where the expertise of the one party tends to define the collaborative relationship. We have a descriptive/analytic research base on teaching physical education that could not have developed without the collaboration of practitioners. We have a smaller research base on teacher change that could not have developed without the willingness of practitioners to examine their own teaching. In preparation programs there is renewed interest in the role of practitioners as clinical faculty.

Again, I need to be clear that I am not criticizing action research. It is an important part of a total collaborative effort. The point is that it is a part, not the whole. Practice-oriented research, as I have argued elsewhere (Siedentop, 1990), derives not only and perhaps not even predominantly from problems defined by practitioners, but rather from a systematic study of the practice. We have made a good start on the systematic study of teaching physical education over the past several decades and we need to sustain it, enlarge it, and pursue it in more depth.

There is also a related need for us to be less instrumental in our approaches to collaboration. Action research not only has the democratic assumption about egalitarian roles but also an assumption that collaborative efforts should lead to changed practice. Martinek and Butt (1988), for example, emphasized that action research works best when it focuses on problems raised by practitioners and leads to solutions. Solution-oriented research is important. I support it strongly, but I also advise two cautions.

First, while individual teachers solving local problems through collaborative research is wholly supportable, the more general view of the teacher-researcher transforming teaching practices puts the burden for school reform on the teacher in a way that doesn't fairly acknowledge the structural constraints under which teachers typically labor.

Second, some issues that are central to the practice of teaching physical education are not "problems" that can be solved in limited time-frames through research which leads to solutions. Many important issues involve meaning and values and can't be "solved" in any way other than to continue to deal with them in an increasingly reflective and sensitive way. What Larry Locke said in 1977 is equally pertinent today: "How to keep the teacher alive and struggling with the problems of doing good work is now and will continue to be the question from which any great leap forward must begin."

Physical education teachers seldom have opportunities to talk about the meaning of their work, not only its pedagogical implications, but also the ethical, social, and political issues within which that work is embedded. Collaborative efforts could be arranged simply to secure the time and context within which those kinds of dialogues might take place. There is, however, yet another caution related to this less instrumental collaboration. The lifespace of the teacher is characterized by what Lortie (1975) described as "presentism," where concerns are necessarily for the next class or the next day, a lifespace that is hostile to reflective thought and extended discussion. In the university, on the other hand, reflection and extended discussion are the lifeblood of the professoriate. Reflecting, discussing, and debating are important skills in the university with ample time for faculty to practice them. Few practitioners have had similar opportunities. When practitioners and researchers meet, under normal institutional contexts, it is a monologue that typically ensues, one that in terms of reflective collaboration has all the resonance of one hand clapping (Barth, 1990). Clearly, the context for this kind of collegial sharing and reflecting is crucial.

Toward a More Complete Understanding of Teaching

A third theme, I'd like to address is my belief that *understanding physical education teaching is one of the two major preconditions to improving it.* The other precondition is the commitment to persevere in doing it well, the kind of missionary zeal for teaching sport and fitness that we seemed to have lost when we abandoned the normal school model for preparing teachers, one that we are unlikely to recapture in full measure until that time when teachers once again become convinced of and sustained by the social value of their work.

As I indicated a moment ago, I believe we have a good beginning on understanding teaching from a descriptive/analytical perspective. We have lesser but still promising beginnings from understanding it from qualitative and experimental perspectives. What we have learned is helping to inform both current practitioners and a new generation of preservice teachers. Lawson (1990) was right when he recently suggested that this research base is nascent and incomplete, but he was wrong when he asserted that it was silent on challenges inherent in work practices. The impact of teaching research on the practice of teaching is sometimes slow and diffuse, what most refer to now as "knowledge creep." As Clifford (1973) showed in the *Second Handbook of Research on Teaching*, that is the way it has typically been, and I suspect for some legitimate reasons. Sometimes, however, the impact is clearer and the latencies shorter. Certainly some of the greatest challenges faced by teachers over the past quarter century have been in class management and discipline. I would argue that the research influence on class management and discipline practices in American schools is clear and convincing. Teachers have more management and discipline strategies to call on, are more skillful in their applications, and more sensitive to their ancillary effects.

We need to continue that journey toward understanding teaching that we began twenty years ago and we need to encourage the different viewpoints that derive from multiple research perspectives.

Collecting and Analyzing Craft Knowledge

This continued need to better understand physical education teaching leads to my fourth main point: *The collection, analysis and codification of craft knowledge represents the next major step forward for research on teaching physical education and also may result in a new form of collaboration among researchers and practitioners.*

We have Lee Shulman (1987), of course, to thank for bringing the domains of knowledge about teaching forward and for emphasizing the importance of craft knowledge, that special knowledge that practitioners gain through experience, and use to guide their practices.

Teachers clearly do have what McCutcheon and Jung (1990) call "personal theories of practice," developed as frameworks for organizing and interpreting knowledge about teaching, children, parents, and curriculum, a fair part of which is no doubt craft knowledge. Researchers are increasingly sensitive to the fact that what has been missing from the expanding knowledge base for teaching are the voices of the teachers themselves (Cochran-Smith and Lytle, 1990).

I am convinced that systematically investigating craft knowledge will not only enhance the knowledge base for teaching physical education but will also require a new and fruitful form of collaboration. Martinek and Schempp (1988), in introducing the JTPE monograph on collaboration, suggested that improved teaching "can come about only through the combined efforts of those who produce knowledge and those who use the knowledge" (p. 160). I would argue that, while true in some respects, this view sustains a unidirectional assumption about university-based researchers and school-based practitioners, a view that is as debilitating to collaborative efforts as was the unidirectional assumption about teacher and student behavior in early process-product research.

In investigating craft knowledge it will become clear that it is the practitioner who "produces" the knowledge and the teacher educator who "uses" it. It will also become clear that theory is not the sole province of the research. Teachers do have personal theories which guide their work--some good, some fragmented, some no doubt contradictory, and some no doubt sophisticated and elegant. We might also expect that some personal theories of teaching may be similar to emerging research-based theories of teaching; albeit the language used to articulate them may be different. The assertion or implication that theory and the production of knowledge is the sole province of the university has too often sustained a caste system that, by anointing some of us, has insulted us all (Barth, 1990).

It will not be easy to capture and analyze craft knowledge. The issue is not whether practitioners have craft knowledge, but under what conditions they will reveal it (Leinhardt, 1990). Once revealed, the problem is to separate that knowledge which is important and valid from that which is unimportant or invalid, sorting the deep and sensitive from the superstitious. None of this can be accomplished without the full and sincere collaboration of practitioners--and, I would suggest, a sustained collaborative relationship that is based on a set of working assumptions which differ markedly from collaboration for action research or program improvement.

Teachers as Researchers

The final theme I'd like to explore briefly is this: *Practitioners can and do "do research."* Richardson's (1990) recent findings on teacher change are typical of findings on that topic: Teachers do change their practices all the time, typically practical changes evaluated against the criterion of "did it work," a complex criterion related to teacher beliefs, student engagement, teacher control, and the demands of the system within which the change took place. The fact that few of these changes were evaluated in ways that would satisfy scientific standards for internal validity should not detract us from viewing them as a kind of grassroots experimentalism.

In other cases too teachers have acted very much like scientists. I am not suggesting this is the norm, but there is sufficient evidence about teachers who utilize scientific practices regularly in their teaching to discredit any assertion that the workplace *necessarily* prohibits teachers from regularly doing science; that is, from assessing their teaching practices empirically. One example of this on a statewide basis has been the Vermont consulting teacher program, a network linking special education teacher who deliver services to children with disabilities in Vermont's mostly rural schools. These special education teachers work with classroom teachers to collect baseline data and monitor intervention programs, resulting in a statewide data bank of thousands of individual examples of treatment programs.

A second example is the national movement called "precision teaching" developed from the work of Ogden Lindsley. Precision teaching is primarily a measurement system in which teachers and students monitor important academic and social behaviors on a daily basis and make changes in educational materials, programs, and class procedures based on those data. Precision teachers utilize varied teaching methodologies but are all committed to functional, educational decision-making based on daily measurement of student performance and involving students in both the measurement of their own performance and the decision making relative to those performances. When Precision Teachers gather, the typical format for interchange is to share data and discuss teaching interventions that seemed useful in helping a particular student achieve a particular educational goal.

For the most part, teachers in these examples were taught the concepts and skills necessary to practice this way in their preparation programs and were also socialized into a teaching role which values data-based decision making. None of these teachers was trained as a research scientist. You would not see research methods or statistics courses on their transcripts. They were simply prepared in a teaching method that requires them to produce reliable information about their students and how to relate that information to the materials and processes in the educational environment; that is, they were taught to do science even though the formal language and baggage of the scientific method were absent.

Toward Collegiality Among Physical Educators

I wish I had been able to describe ways in which the success of collaborative efforts could be made more likely. I do know this: To sustain a broader, more encompassing collaboration we not only need to work toward a changed lifespace for teachers, but also need real collegiality among physical educators. Congeniality is nice too and probably helps to sustain collegiality, but it is not a substitute for it. The fact that physical education professors and teachers have friendly relationships doesn't make them colleagues--and it is collegiality that we need to build and sustain. Our discussions need to be frequent, continuous, and concrete. We need to see each other teach. We need to work together on program development. We need to share with each other what we know about teaching and learning. Researchers and practitioners we may be, but as long as those distinctions dominate the more basic role identity as physical educators, members of a common professional-practice, we will have difficulty being real colleagues.

I would also argue that the major burden for establishing and sustaining that collegiality falls on the university-based physical educator and the starting point for it is teacher education. Much of the "bad baggage" that makes collaboration between school and university-based physical educators difficult derives from a teacher preparation in which the socialization contingencies are based on an expert-faculty status dominating a novice-student status. If it is the voice of the teacher that has been too absent from research on teaching, it is the voice of the preservice professional that has been too absent from teacher education. Here again, congeniality among faculty and students, a goal often achieved, is too often mistaken for collegiality. Here too we need to see each other teach. We need to share with each other what we believe about teaching, learning, and physical education. Most of all, it is here, in teacher education, that we need to establish ourselves as members of a common professional-practice. We are all, in that sense, practitioners of physical education, and it is that from that common bond that we must forge our collaborative future.

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Collaboration Between Researchers and Practitioners: Myth, Mirth, or Melody

Leslie T. Lambert

The theme for our conference and the topic of our presentation compels us, before all else, to clarify what we believe to be the purpose of collaboration. What is it that we wish to achieve as researchers and practitioners forge a commitment to new and better ways of collaborating? What will it entail and what will it create? Will our efforts be another "dance of legitimacy...or a viable strategy for change (Deal, 1984:128)?" Addressing these questions is fundamental to our beginning and to our success. My part of our presentation will offer: 1) a clarification of the purpose for collaboration; 2) some observations about the people and environments of collaboration; and 3) suggestions for progress.

In the interest of clarity, I would like to define three terms--collaboration, research, and practice. *Collaboration* involves two or more parties working together in a mutually beneficial partnership for conducting research on or practice in teaching and learning. The term *research* includes dominant quantitative and qualitative models as well as action research (Lewin, 1948) intended to inform teaching and learning. *Practice* refers to the active application of concepts, strategies, and teaching ideas to enhance student learning. With terms defined, I would like to share a perspective on what the purpose of collaboration might be.

The Purpose of Collaboration: What Should It Be?

Do researchers and practitioners work together in mutually beneficial partnerships to improve teaching and learning in physical education? Is it myth, touted to happen when in reality, it does not? Is the idea of collaboration mirthful, amusing--because collaboration is just one-way cooperation or the dissemination of eventual results? Is collaboration melodic--full of harmony, clear, and meaningful?

From my singular window to the world, I have gained invaluable insights from my experiences and observations as public school teacher, university researcher/practitioner, and currently as a public school central level administrator. These insights have led me to conclude that collaboration, if defined as a mutually beneficial partnership, is rare and that many collaborative efforts are mythical as they have not been mutually effective.

My experiences and observations also persuade me to believe that mutually beneficial collaborative efforts are greatly needed. The journey toward clarifying and creating reciprocal research/practice programs in physical education is not only desirable but may prove to be our profession's return to what should matter most of all in our colleges of education and our schoolhouses--the improvement of teaching and learning. I do not believe that collaboration can honestly and effectively occur until the enhancement of student learning, be it physically, socially, or intellectually, is our clear and uncompromised purpose.

As we read the literature on reforming, rethinking, and reconstructing schools, one thing is clear--the reform movement itself is in need of reform! So much of research in education seems to have an international inclination to focus on issues that can easily be controlled. That approach tends to direct more research to smaller, more minute areas where results are more precise and, therefore, more irrelevant to the complex practice of educating. If our purpose was clear, I believe more of our research might better address the issues pressing our profession against the wall of credibility.

Where is the research that can inform us about developing effective physical education programs, programs that have been proven successful in improving student abilities to learn motor skills and enhancing student motivation to pursue vigorous physical activity? Where is the research that can effectively persuade a board of education that instructional time in physical education needs to be increased instead of decreased? Where is the research that can guide policy decisions in our profession's favor? Where is the research that places the work culture of physical education teachers under careful, systematic scrutiny and can provide convincing guidance to governmental agencies that create maximum class size regulations and provide guidelines that define "adequate instructional environments?" Our current practice of homogenizing descriptors into consistent sets of beliefs and practices does not help us reform, reconstruct, or rethink; it only serves to keep the circle unbroken and the teachers and students in the public and private schools of the world are the losers.

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As I witness with dismay university departments of physical education still attempting to define themselves in ever more fragmented ways, I am further bewildered that we have lost sight of our purpose. When I read through our "research-missioned" journals, I often have to wonder -- Does this have to do with physical education, with improving student learning in physical education?

Our purpose of improving teaching and learning has often been subjugated to the power politics of "your area vs. my area;" to increasingly more precise research questions rarely mindful of real world validity; and to job descriptions that place greater value on narrowly focused research study than on teaching and service. Our purpose has been confused by our various institutional expectations and rewards for achievement that define, delimit, and dictate where and how energies and resources are directed.

An old adage seems to apply here: "Be careful what you hope for, you might just get it." Have we wished ourselves a step too close to the scientific model and been overwhelmed by it? Have we not been willful enough to keep our vision and our perspective as teachers and teacher educators alive? In our profession's zeal to be more scientific, more pedagogic, and more "credible," we have subdisciplined ourselves close to extinction. In many places, we have thrown away our name (physical education) and in the process, have thrown the baby out with the bathwater.

There is a need for a fresh, new "kaleidoscopic" way of looking at this long standing need. To conceive something entirely new, we must divorce ourselves from the traditional lens of success that today may not be serving us well. We must involve more people from varying perspectives, give up the comfort of surrounding ourselves only with those who agree with us, and redefine success in terms of our purpose.

Gary Zukav in his recent book *The Seat of the Soul* uses a wonderful metaphoric analogy as he explains our culture's need to take the next step in its evolution. He tells of how significant candles were in providing heat and light before the discovery of electricity. Once electricity was available, candles did not become obsolete but their usefulness was seen in a different way. With collaboration we have the power of electricity, the ability to look at our world in larger more illuminated ways. Our institutions, however, require us to get our light and our heat from candles, from the scientific model. Instead of using the scientific method as one of many tools, it seems to have taken on a life of its own.

I hope the time has come to face ourselves and our institutions and dismiss our growing parochial narrowness and circuitous rhetoric. We are in a time of deep and profound change. The need is here and it is urging us to forge a stronger, more purposeful alliance between what we do as researchers and what we do as practitioners in our field. If the improvement of student learning is not at the heart and soul of our collaborative efforts, our work and its results are at risk of being contrived, bogus, and invalid. The individuals attempting to do collaborative work need to firmly ground themselves in the purpose of their work. We, the people of collaboration, need to get back to the reason we are here in the first place.

The People and Environments of Collaboration

Who are the people of collaboration and what type of environments are necessary to foster their work? Does every teacher and every researcher have the will and skill to serve in this special role? For collaboration to be mutually beneficial, it needs to be conducted by people who share common values and a clear sense of purpose. It cannot be assumed that the researcher is well-versed in practice any more than it can be assumed the practitioner is well-versed in the research process. Many researchers and practitioners literally have nothing to offer each other, while others thrive almost symbiotically.

Considering the environments, institutions need to acknowledge, promote, and reward collaborative work. To date, researchers and practitioners often exist, by the nature of their institutions, at cross purposes and with segregated missions. Diverse demands are placed on school personnel by the taxpaying public that are quite different from the expectations placed upon researchers in colleges and universities. The motives, values, perspectives, and reward structures are often bipolar rather than convergent.

Researchers need data, generally prefer minimal time and resource investment, desire access but have no real accountability/responsibility to students/teachers/schools, and need to produce scholarly results. In contrast, teachers need instructional time to accomplish a litany of motor skill and fitness objectives. Teachers have limited resources, have accountability/responsibility for student learning, are already operating over capacity, and are rewarded in very different ways than are researchers. It is often difficult to merge these two worlds in mutually beneficial ways. If the improvement of student learning is the fundamental reason for collaboration, researchers must acknowledge the importance of the teacher in the research process and understand that the real locus of change is the gymnasium or classroom and not anywhere else.

In the last two decades, we have witnessed considerable research on teaching in all fields of education. Yet when much of the research on teaching is reviewed, there is very little evidence of teacher input into research design, implementation, and interpretation of results. According to several researchers (Cochran-Smith and Lytle, 1990), the teacher has been disenfranchised, seemingly exiled, by much of the prevailing quantitative and qualitative research on teaching. The teacher's voice has rarely been heard. Cochran-Smith and Lytle state (1990: 2)

> (F)ew teachers participate in codifying what we know about teaching, identifying research agendas, and creating new knowledge... Those who have daily access, extensive expertise, and a clear stake in improving classroom practice have no formal way to make their knowledge of classroom teaching and learning part of the literature on teaching.

Until teachers have full and equal membership in the research/practice partnership, many research efforts will be suspect, researchers will be frustrated by the slow or nonexistent adoption of their findings, students in our programs will be undeserved, and our purpose will be unrealized. Among the many challenges facing the establishment of effective programs of collaboration are the desegregation of research and practice and avoiding the discontinuity between what researchers generate and what teachers know to be real.

Obstacles created by teachers and schools are powerful, prevalent, and legitimate when they perceive research and practice to be segregated. When teachers' voices are not evident in research on teaching and when theory and practice are distance phenomena, subtle but powerful lines are drawn. When teacher input is not invited or not visible in the research process, teachers often align their personal experiences, beliefs, and wisdom against the recommendations of research as a way to make credible their competence and expertise. When teachers have not been involved in the creation of research agenda, the results of the research, particularly if contrary to their practice, are viewed as critical of and threatening to their sense of worth and credibility. Huberman (1990) noted that for research to have significant impact on practice and vice versa, the researcher and the practitioner need to have ongoing interactions from inception to completion. When teachers are significantly involved and invested in the research process, the likelihood of continued, long term, and more extensive research interaction is greatly enhanced.

To develop long term research/practice relationships, careful consideration is warranted when selecting collaborative teams of teachers and researchers. How can we characterize effective teacher/collaborators and researcher/collaborators who can be meaningfully engaged in both research and practice? First, teacher/collaborators are an inquisitive lot. They know how to connect theory, research, and practice because they know the questions to ask and ask them. They are researchers in their classrooms everyday as they seek to create, interpret, and utilize the knowledge and teaching skills necessary to help students learn. They can accurately and incisively size up the quality of research findings and separate the chaff from the grain. They are excellent teachers of their students, peers, and of anyone privileged to observe them do their work. They provide the researcher/collaborator with information unattainable through any other means or from any other source because they know their students through special insights and knowledge unavailable to the occasional observer. Overcommitment is their greatest enemy for they are the first to volunteer for challenging endeavors that will potentially improve their ability to help students learn. They are professionally active and astute, with the ability to discern almost instantly the validity of a researcher's study of the teaching/learning process. They are different and they know they are different.

How can we characterize effective researcher/collaborators? They too, are different and know it. For much of their professional lives they have been reminded by their colleagues that their careers might be more esteemed if they would only dance more intimately with the scientific model. These individuals have not been motivated by the standard institutional rewards of academe or necessarily by the respect of their colleagues. Rather, their motivation has come from their sense of purpose and the value they place on making a difference relative to that purpose. Their contributions not only impact the evolution of their particular niche in the profession, but also the growth and evolution of those who work and learn with them as students and colleagues.

As practitioners first, these researchers believe and behave as if their "subjects" are real learners in organic, pulsing environments that are complex and imprecise. These researcher/collaborators see feelings, thoughts, attitudes, and the myriad interactions in a class of students as important, not interference in the research design. They know that teaching/learning problems yield only to holistic, contextual solutions. Fundamentally, they know their best work is hard work and that it takes long term commitment to understand and facilitate change in the idiosyncratic complexity that defines the daily world of teaching and learning.

It is becoming more obvious that very few of these researcher/collaborators are assistant professors in research universities. Most who have succeeded and continue to succeed in this role have been in the university setting for many years and are associate and full professors. There is a definite "graying" in the researcher/collaborator ranks -- and this is a significant issue.

This issue is having and will continue to have significant impact as we attempt to develop better ways of collaborating. Assistant professors have a very different set of institutional expectations, even if they share similar, collaborative values and beliefs. Acting on these beliefs is usually postponed until promotion and tenure hurdles are reckoned with. Most assistant professors "play by the rules" and those rules disadvantage them and our profession. Their focus is narrowed and their commitment is to self-preservation under the guidelines of their particular institution's mission -- not necessarily out of choice, but out of necessity.

Many questions come to mind as one considers this dilemma. Somewhere in the answers to these questions we find our future. What kind of professional world is being created in teacher education? What are the professional goals of individuals who choose to pursue advanced graduate study in physical education in 1991? What model and message is being portrayed to tomorrow's teacher, teacher educator, and researcher? Will each new generation of graduate students move further from practice? How valid will their research agenda be when divorced from practice? What are the implications relative to creating effective collaboration? Is the "graying" of the researcher/collaborator a forecasting metaphor, foretelling of the coming extinction of teacher preparation as we know it and of teaching and learning in school-based physical education programs? If so, it makes our gathering here a noble but futile effort to salvage what is mythical and has already been destroyed by fragmentation and lack of relevancy. I, for one, believe that only collectively and collaboratively can we seek the melody, the harmony, and the sense of purpose we need to survive and thrive as a profession.

Seeking the Melody: Suggestions in Favor of Collaboration

As we seek the melody, several suggestions are offered that may be helpful to us and our institutions as we attempt to increase our abilities to collaborate.

1. We need to continue to seek mutually beneficial research opportunities that are inclusive, purposeful, and valid.
2. We need to acknowledge and attempt to mediate the variance of cultures between schools and research institutions that create cross purposes and segregated missions.
3. We need to redefine the "prizes" and examine the reward structures inherent in our institutions and the impact these rewards have on the potential for true collaboration.
4. We need to create programs, opportunities, and incentives for "teachers as researchers" and "researchers as teachers."
    a. For teachers: 1) encourage and facilitate greater access to information and research experiences; 2) create opportunities to formalize their daily research as a routine feature of their job; and 3) create opportunities for them to learn from researchers and to teach researchers (the merging of craft and research knowledge).
    b. For researchers: 1) encourage and facilitate greater access to schools to enhance research credibility and knowledge of the real world; 2) encourage the researcher to become a citizen of the school community and give in relation to what one expects to gain; 3) discourage "outside in" research -- research must be valid and pertinent; and 4) encourage researchers to invite the involvement of school-based teachers in the research process.
5. We need to exercise administrative imagination and creativity in an effort to improve human, financial, and capital resources that will provide opportunities for researchers and practitioners to work together over the long term.
6. We need to develop and support teams of teachers and researchers for research initiation and implementation.
7. We need to encourage and support quality, legitimate, nonprescriptive, participatory research efforts.
8. We need to dare to probe beneath the surface appearance of research on teaching and learning and weigh the sometimes narrow research perspectives against the contextual perspective of practice. Is it valid?
9. We need to create a collaborative niche in our professional organizations (AIESEP, ICHPER, NAPEHE, AAHPERD) that can serve as a nurturing habitat for those most interested in purposeful, valid, mutually beneficial research/practice endeavors.

For collaboration to succeed, everyone involved needs to be beneficiary to the results, gaining from our experiences in relation to what we have given. There are currently many highly capable teachers and researchers in the process of collaborating toward the improvement of teaching and learning in our profession. But there need to be more, many more.

We need a choir of harmonious voices resonating long and strong the melody that we can uniquely sing. We must provide strong, convincing leadership and vision within our institutions as we dare to create a future that assures the accomplishment of our purpose. This is no small task. To begin, we need to carefully examine our own individual commitments as teachers and teacher educators to true collaboration. Critically, we must dedicate ourselves to clarifying our purpose and to working within our respective institutions to lessen the often powerful barriers if we are to enhance the probability of achieving our vision.

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The Recognition and Reward Structure in Higher Education in The United States -- A Major Inhibitor to Collaboration Between Researcher and Practitioner

Jack E. Razor and Joe D. Willis

Introduction

The central thesis of this presentation is that the current recognition and reward structure operative in higher education research institutions mitigates against effective collaboration between educational researcher and practitioner. Further, the absence of any such reward structure in school systems serves only to diminish incentive and compound the problem of conducting applied research in the public schools. While there are excellent examples of collaboration between researcher and practitioner, and some of these are in physical education, these efforts tend to be sporadic, relatively few in number, of limited impact, and neither employed nor highly valued by those external to the immediate collaborative research endeavor.

The reasons more collaboration between professors and public school teachers does not occur, in both research and program development, may be couched more in the individual recognition and reward structure in higher education in the United States than in the interest of either party, the needs of students, an understanding of the necessity and value conducting research in applied, real world settings or in the value of conveying findings and interpretations on a wide scale basis.

This is not meant to suggest that educational research in higher education is dormant, quite the contrary. P. W. Jackson, President of the American Educational Research Association suggests that educational scholarship is in a period of lively ferment (Evangelauf, 1990). But research in education is not without its problems. Dr. Christopher Cross, Assistant Secretary for Educational Research and Improvement in the Department of Education says that, while education research ". . . is no longer regarded as the Rodney Dangerfield of academia, education scholars would get more respect if their work provided solutions to the problems plaguing the schools" (Evangelauf, 1990, p. A18).

The ensuing discussion is not questioning the value of collaborative, applied research. That value exists on its logical premise, on the success that has been achieved where such research has been conducted, and on observations of success from models in other professions such as medicine, agriculture and business. Nor is there concern about the need for such research, given the current status of public school education in the U.S. Indeed, there is an expectation, if not demand, by the public sector that higher education take an aggressive role in conducting applied research in the public schools. This expectation and onus is increasing in research institutions. The problem of collaborative research does not lie in the need for nor value to be derived from such research, but rather in the incentive for it to occur.

It is important here to acknowledge that there is quality, collaborative, applied research being conducted in the public schools in the United States and that such efforts are increasing. What is not so evident is that such research is being widely conducted, that the results are published and disseminated, and that this research is having an impact as reflected in student achievement, the attainment of educational goals, or that changes are occurring in the instructional process. An accusation frequently leveled by the general public, and to a lesser extent, by our colleagues in higher education and the public schools, is that educators and researchers in colleges of education are noticeably absent in our elementary, middle, and senior high schools. The perception is that the proverbial ivory tower is alive and well.

Given that there is some collaborative research being conducted in the public schools, but that there is also some substance to the view that more should be done, what are the underlying reasons for the absence of extensive or even marginal involvement in collaborative research in the public schools? Why are the schools not being inundated with education professors conducting research and implementing experimental programs in a real world environment?

The basic reason lies in a faulty individual reward and recognition system that is neither conducive nor responsive to the type of collaborative research that needs to be conducted in the schools. Instead, the reward and recognition system tends to reinforce a historic arts and science model which rewards and encourages individual accomplishments, research which can produce data and publishable results in a relatively short time frame, pure as opposed to applied research, and research which may be readily disseminated and utilized by a larger public. These, among other variables in the reward and recognition structure, when examined in light of conducting needed research in the public schools, only serve to militate against conducting research in an ongoing educational setting. Our position is that such incentive is diminished and thwarted by an institutional reward and recognition system that in many cases is antiquated in its philosophy, prejudicial in its evaluation and application and in actual conflict with individual productivity and ultimately, both individual and institutional success.

Barriers to Collaboration

Of the multitude of factors which make collaborative research difficult, several are either directly or indirectly connected with the reward and recognition system firmly entrenched in universities across the United States. Barriers to collaboration were discussed recently by Christopher Cross, Assistant Secretary for Educational Research and Improvement in the Department of Education. In a speech to research educators, Cross identified two obstacles to efforts to bring research findings to those who could use them. First, no journal exists that is dedicated to "spreading the word" about important developments in education research. What is needed, according to Cross, is a journal that enjoys the stature and public credibility of *The Journal of the American Medical Association.* (Evangelauf, 1990, p. A18)

This particular obstacle, the absence of methodology for disseminating educational research as well as a specific, reputable journal for doing so, is a major contributor to the reluctance to conduct research in the public schools by professors in research universities. Indeed, there are few reputable, refereed journals on educational research and those which do exist are published infrequently and/or are not widely disseminated and read by practitioners in either teacher education in higher education or teachers in the public schools. Thus professors in higher education, especially those assistant and associate professors required to have substantive publication records when seeking promotion and tenure, avoid conducting research and developing programs in the public schools because of the limited avenues for accessing the recognition and reward structure.

A second obstacle to educational research which Cross identified placed the blame squarely upon schools of education, faulting them for not valuing research highly enough. He believes that schools of education ought to be the prime movers and users of education research. Moreover, he contends that they should place a premium on applied research, that is, on studies that address the needs and concerns of practitioners. (Evangelauf, 1990, p. A18) Thus, in a context of understanding why there is a relative lack of collaborative, applied research in the public schools, it is important to understand why professors in higher education are reluctant to devote their time and energies to an endeavor where success may be difficult to achieve and if they are successful, the results may be neither appreciated nor rewarded.

It seems certain that while collaboration is the model of choice if the purpose is to conduct research which is relevant to the improvement of education, the model itself contains elements which may preclude its use by educational researchers who are forced to operate within reward systems which emphasize quantity of research, laboratory as opposed to field research, and research which is fundable by outside agencies. Specifically, the collaborative process implies extensive involvement of all parties in all aspects of the project, which in essence means that not only will the university researcher be involved in a time-consuming process, but that they will of necessity give up much of the autonomy which they typically enjoy.

True collaborative endeavors emphasize the active participation of the research consumer in formulating the research questions and involvement throughout the inquiry process, extending even to the formulation of implementation strategies. The active participation of all parties would suggest that a great deal of time and effort must necessarily be devoted to matters of group process and the development of consensus. Time, then, is one of the most salient characteristics of collaboration, and one upon which the success of the process depends. Talking, questioning, arguing, planning, collecting data, analyzing data, writing reports, implementing program changes, evaluating the changes, etc. requires such a significant time commitment that perhaps the hours, weeks, months, and even years which the process requires are often not comprehended nor appreciated by colleagues. Further, keeping the extensive time investment of collaboration in mind, if we now overlay the time requirements involved in being a professor (or even worse, an untenured assistant professor) we can quickly see that it is perhaps impractical and unworkable for most researchers. Time demands associated with a significant teaching load, departmental, college, and university committee work, involvement with professional organizations, being available for student interaction, and a multitude of other professional obligations militate against a research program which requires the prolonged periods of time necessary for successful collaboration. As we shall see, the reward systems of research universities have characteristically not favored such investments of professor time.

Another barrier to research collaboration, which is inherent in the collaborative process itself, is the principle of addressing research questions which are relevant to the practitioner. Although this is sound procedure for securing the commitment of practitioners and other school personnel, and is no doubt essential to the success of the specific collaborative research project, the capitulation of control of the research agenda does little for the university researcher's need to demonstrate a progressive research program. Of course this relates to the desire on the part of department and university personnel and budget committees to see professors engaged in a planned series of research studies which progressively build toward a significant contribution to knowledge rather than conducting an uncoordinated, somewhat disparate collection of studies which, although possibly solving some very real and immediate problems of a specific teacher or school system, do little in the traditional sense to meet the goal of knowledge advancement. This second dilemma stemming from the nature of the collaborative process is certainly no less frustrating than the first, especially if a person is nontenured or has any aspirations of ever getting promoted.

Recommendations

The challenge before field-based educational researchers of all ranks and tenure status is to remain committed to conducting collaborative research in the public schools. The solution to achieving a higher academic rank, tenure, and appropriate salary increments lies in neither avoidance of the public schools as an arena for research nor in foregoing the recognition and rewards concomitant with being a productive faculty member. Educational researchers interested in field-based research have basically two avenues to pursue: one, to significantly alter the recognition and reward structure in higher education, not a likely scenario; or two, operate more efficaciously within the current system but departing from the more traditional modes of conducting such research; altering the traditional ways in which assistant and associate professors are assigned their teaching, research, and service responsibilities; and developing strategies for achieving optimal productivity in a relatively compressed time frame. Examples include:

1. Universities, and colleges of education in particular, should "adopt" a specific elementary, middle, or senior high school for purposes of conducting research and implementing innovative programs. Just as businesses are "adopting" schools, so too should universities. With the demise of laboratory schools in the United States, there is a tremendous need for a permanent, applied setting in which to conduct research and implement experimental programs. Such an arrangement would significantly reduce the time and energy of faculty spent in fighting the bureaucracy in order to access the schools and their students.

2. University and college administrators must employ new and creative means of assigning faculty released time for research so that it facilitates and encourages field-based research. Extended periods of time need to be made available to aspiring assistant and associate professors. For example, half year "research leaves" to conduct research in the schools during the academic year would be appropriate. A slightly different approach is to provide a "sabbatical" after seven years may be helpful to those who achieve tenure, it does little to aid one in getting tenure. In such a case the faculty member being released during the fall semester could teach in the summer to satisfy contractual obligations. Traditionally, the arts and sciences model has dominated our thinking as illustrated in the practice of awarding "university research grants" to new non-tenured assistant professors during the summer to provide some financial assistance but primarily to aid them in developing their research (and publications). This approach may be logical for those in the arts and sciences, business, and engineering but it is illogical for those in education. The field-based researcher needs to have the research time when schools are in session, not out of session. Similar administrative strategies such as making all public school research projects a collaborative endeavor between a tenured full professor and a non-tenured assistant professor would be both efficient and effective. The strengths of such an arrangement are apparent in both the short and long term.

3. Complementing the previous two examples, the productivity of young, untenured professors would be more demonstrable if they could join ongoing research projects, rather than being responsible for initially generating their own. The number and quality of publications and presentations emanating from ongoing research would be greater and the impact more significant. Young faculty would benefit by joining funded projects and grants and learning first hand the process and values of external funding. The acquisition of grants is extremely complex and assistant professors would both benefit and learn from someone else's grantsmanship. This format would provide added impetus for the emerging professoriate to successfully enter into the grantsmanship arena.

But for all that may be done to facilitate conducting research in the public schools and the strategies for making it possible, the basic factor instrumental in its success is making the recognition and reward structure compatible with the task itself. The incentives, logistics, and values for achieving promotion, tenure, and salary increments must be in concert with the university's recognition and reward structure. Under the current research expectations in higher education and the present conditions operative in the public schools, collaborative research between university faculty and the public schools is not likely to occur with any significant frequency nor have a great impact. The primary culprit in this scenario is the antiquated and bureaucratic recognition and reward system currently in place for determining promotion, tenure, and salary increases.

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Section 2. Meeting the Challenges: Insights from Personal Perspectives

Collaboration Between Researchers and Practitioners: A Case for Self-Collaboration

Don Hellison

Purpose

The gap between research and practice in physical education is old news. Recommendations to bridge this gap have ranged from simply communicating research findings more clearly (e.g., Rothstein, 1973) to more complicated schemes such as research bonded models of collaboration (Martinek & Schempp, 1988) of which action research is an example (Martinek & Butt, 1988). More recently, Lawson (1990) has pointed out the flaws in top down research-into-practice "collaboration" in sport pedagogy, and Huberman (1990) has made a data-based argument for more balanced collaboration in order for research to find its way into practice. It is not my intention to rehash these arguments. Instead, I want to share my experiential perspective on the collaboration of research and practice.

For this paper, research is broadly conceived, being perhaps best represented by the four types of researchers described by Mitroff and Kilmann (1981): analytic scientist, conceptual theorist, global humanist, and particular humanist. Collaboration is simply defined as someone engaged in research as described above working with someone who is primarily responsible for using physical activity to educate specific groups of students with the mutual goal of improving educational practice.

To give some framework for this paper (and to add some humor to this otherwise grave topic), my collaborative experiences will be categorized in three ways. Research-practitioner collaboration may be primarily MYTH -- i.e., a justification or rationalization for the emphasis on research in universities to which considerable lip service is given without much delivery. Although it is not carried out in practice, the myth is perpetuated because it serves a useful purpose. Collaboration may also be categorized as MIRTH -- i.e., laughable, a joke. This category suggests that, unlike myth, collaboration is not taken seriously; it is a silly idea which, when attempted, sometimes has embarrassing consequences. Finally, collaboration may be categorized as MELODY -- i.e., as collaborative harmony that truly benefits both sides.

Self-Collaboration: The Concept

I have been a professor of physical education for the past twenty years or so, but I have gone about doing this job in an at least somewhat different way. Just about every year as a university professor -- in Portland, Oregon; Bozeman, Montana; Chicago, Illinois; and in Chico, California -- I have taught my own class of high school students. At first, I did this teaching in addition to my duties at the university. Occasionally, I got funded to do this work, and eventually, thanks to supportive administrators and to the theory and research generated from this work, it became part of my university workload. This teaching took a variety of configurations -- e.g., one class daily for an entire year, two hours two days a week for one semester -- but always involved my special interest: at-risk youth. Because of this interest, I have taught in inner city schools, in alternative programs, in residential homes, and in detention centers.

That this professor-as-teacher role is uncommon is shown by the attention given education scholar Larry Cuban when he ventured out to teach after 17 years at the university (Cuban, 1990). However, it is by no means unique. Physical education professors George Graham, Jim Stiehl, and Don Morris, for example, routinely teach children to enhance their understanding of the world of practice. The new thrust in qualitative research has also opened the door to teacher-as-researcher activities in physical education (Hellison, 1989).

What does this professor-as-teacher role, in my own work or that of others, have to do with researcher-practitioner collaboration? I want to make a case for what I will call self-collaboration. Self-collaboration occurs when a researcher of one of the four types identified above takes on the role of practitioner for a period of time at regular (or semi-regular) intervals throughout his/her career. This activity must occur frequently enough that the researcher is no longer a visitor in his/her role as practitioner but truly becomes a part-time practitioner. (A practitioner could also take on the role of researcher, but that brings up other issues that are outside the scope of this paper.)

I am not certain how wide to cast this net. The concept is certainly less appropriate or perhaps totally inappropriate for basic scientists, and yet a motor control scholar who teaches the undergraduate motor learning course, for example, could probably benefit from experiencing first hand the kinds of jobs that physical education graduates typically take. Whether his/her research would be impacted in another question.

Self-Collaboration: Rationale

Lawson (1990) has described a host of problems associated with the belief that research-based knowledge as produced by researchers ought to guide practice. Perhaps most important to this discussion is the observation made by Brenda Bredemeier (Personal communication, 1990) that the division of research and practice creates a false dichotomy, that an interplay of research and practice is required to ask good questions and to strategically seek solutions. Researchers typically bring research design and related technical skills to the collaborative enterprise, whereas practitioners bring an experiential knowledge of "life in the gym" -- the potentialities and constraints for putting any idea into practice, the needs of clients, and so on. Of course, this practitioner knowledge base depends on the skills of the practitioner in observation, reflection, and importantly, openness to new ways of doing things, but no less so than the knowledge base of the researcher depends on his/her research skills and openness to the kinds of problems found in practice.

This argument is well supported in the curriculum literature (Schubert, 1986; Schwab, 1983) by the paradigm of practical inquiry which requires an interplay between theory and practice from which curriculum emerges and evolves. (Of course, whether curriculum development is "true" research continues to be debated, fired by the fundamental differences between curriculum and pedagogy researchers in physical education [Jewett & Bain, 1985].)

University professors often allude to the perspective they have gotten from their experiences in a former life -- as teacher, as exercise leader, as administrator; but past experiences provide myopic insight for conducting applied research. I remember working for one principal who wanted his teachers to get tougher with their inner city clientele; "I used to teach in the inner city," he would say, "and I learned how to set standards." The teachers told the principal that they would take his suggestions more seriously if he would teach a class in the school for a while. He said "No problem" and did teach a class, but he did not say anything more about getting tough. When asked in a faculty meeting why he had abandoned his position he simply said, "They don't even bring pencils!" Past experiences are somehow different than current experiences. Not only do circumstances change, but, more importantly I think, we tend to filter our past experiences, to remember certain things, exaggerate others, forget others.

My view of the necessity of experiencing the practitioner's world at first hand is perhaps best captured by a small piece of my version of a utopian future for physical education:

> Changes in the role and direction of research were facilitated by face-to-face interaction [of professors] with clients in the practitioner's work world. Professors found it difficult to isolate their specialized interests while working with real people in real situations; too many other factors intruded. Whether they were little kids or retirees, whether an aerobics class or a basketball team, individuals responded not only with their bodies but with their thoughts, emotions, perceptions, and a host of other factors as well. Some needed social approval. Others needed body image or body boundary repairs. Still others were searching for...health enhancement..[Still others...] Moreover, these problems presented themselves to practitioners in a never-ending series of idiosyncratic interactions with specific individuals in unique situations (Hellison, 1987, p. 142).

Huberman (1990) points out that face-to-face contacts between researchers and practitioners before and during the study influence the "dissemination/utilization phase" more than the absence of these contacts. Face-to-face contacts before, during, and after probably do help. Yet, in my experience with a large researcher-practitioner face-to-face writing project, the researchers tended to dominate and practitioners appeared to feel intimidated. When the same individual occupies both roles (i.e., self-collaborates), the skills, knowledges, and insights of both roles seems more likely to get equal (or more equal) attention and to mesh.

The impact of researchers adopting self-collaboration to a greater extent than is now the case would primarily be more sensitivity to issues in the "real world" and greater awareness of the sometimes limited role of research in improving practice (Lawson, 1990). In addition, research methodology would be impacted. Paradigms would be loosened, case studies would be taken more seriously, and qualitative research would be boosted. This is not to say that more traditional research designs would be scrapped; their role in the expansion of knowledge and insights would simply be clarified. However, the loosening of paradigms would probably encourage more exploration and perhaps even some emphasis on the development of a physical education imagination (after Mills, 1959) in graduate schools and in research design courses.

More than anything else, self-collaboration would narrow the gap between research and practice. Practice would inform research, research would be tried out in practice by those who did the research, and the implications of research for practice would be clarified in the process.

Self-Collaboration as Melody

The discussion so far strongly suggests a more harmonic research-practice interplay with the adoption of self-collaboration. Before turning to the mirthful and mythic aspects of such an adoption, I want to give a specific example of self-collaboration as MELODY. My 20 years of self-collaboration has resulted in the ongoing development and field testing of a curriculum-instruction model for at-risk and other children and youth (Hellison, 1978; 1985; Hellison, Lifka, & Georgiadis, 1990). This model -- which has been cited in the physical education literature as a exemplar of humanistic physical education (Jewett & Bain, 1985), social development (Siedentop, Taggart, & Mand, 1986), adapted physical education (Winnick, 1990) and critical praxis (Bain, 1989) -- developed out of a continual shuttling back and forth between my theoretical-philosophical drawing board and practical experiences teaching at-risk youth. In addition, I believe that my credibility as a practitioner has influenced the adoption, or more appropriately adaptation, of the model by practitioners (e.g., Hellison, 1985; Masser, 1990).

Self-Collaboration as Mirth

My mirthful moments (caveat: they have loomed much larger than moments through the years) can be categorized as survival experiences, research-as-mirth, and faulty implementation.

I have spent a lot of practitioner time trying to survive the experience. How many times have I looked up at the clock, expecting at least fifteen minutes to have passed, to find five minutes elapsed since I last looked? How many times have I said to myself: "I'll try to figure this out later; right now I just want to get out of here without the building burning down." The answer to these and related questions: a lot over the years. Happily, I was more survival-oriented at the beginning, and am less so today. But I have learned that, as someone once said, "it comes with the territory."

Other times I truly felt that the problems I faced were beyond the reach of research. This has been said before, of course. Listen to John Goodland (1979): "No one has yet outdone the common wisdom that emerges from simple experiences, reflection, and intuition." Or Keeves (1988): "Human relationships are so complex that there is no chance of unravelling in full the net of factors operating in a particular situation." I simply experienced what these scholars' observed.

I also have experienced lamely putting research into practice. One time, drawing on the research of Orlick (1978) and others, I introduced a cooperative game, blindfold soccer, to a class of inner city kids who I thought needed to improve their skills in getting along with each other. Students paired up, one blindfolded who could kick the soccer ball, the other who could tell his/her partner where to kick but could not touch the ball. Within five minutes, one student had run his blindfolded partner into one of the goalposts! Another time, based on the idea of students creating their own games in order to learn to work together (e.g., Morris & Stiehl, 1989), a group of my students created strip volleyball!

My own ideas have sometimes fared just as badly. I once overheard a student coaching another student in my developmental levels (Hellison, 1985), so he could pass a test allowing him to write a contract and work on his own. "I know it don't make no sense," he told the other boy, "but that's what he wants to hear!"

Self-Collaboration as Myth

I'm sure that I have perpetuated the myth that, since I worked on both sides, each informed the other, creating in me a unique version of the university professor. (This paper contributes to that myth!) From my above examples, it is quite clear that this has not been the case. Although teaching at-risk youth gave my professorial role some credibility and (sometimes) some relevance, often it just gave me some humorous stories to tell (with the joke usually being on me).

There is another mythic aspect to my self-collaboration. I have never aspired to be either "just" a scholar-researcher or "just" a practitioner. Self-collaboration has been, for me, the actualization of my professional sense of purpose, the answer to the central question in my professional life: What's worth doing? The process itself -- the attempt to make a difference in the lives of at-risk youth by developing an idea, putting it into practice, and sharing it with others -- has kept me going for over twenty years. Of course, I have had doubts along the way (e.g., Hellison, 1990), and I probably would not have sustained my motivation without the support and recognition of both university colleagues and practitioners (and, at least sometimes, more than a little support from the kids). Whether I have really made a difference may be beside the point. The cause is worthy, the effort sincere (as far as I can tell), my identity bolstered by such involvement. This is more than a little reminiscent of Becker's (1973) heroic myth concept which holds that the attempt to make a contribution that matters can help a person make sense of a limited life span, even though the person is aware that the delivery will fall short. In this sense, my self-collaboration is mostly myth.

Contributions and Barriers

My own experiences with self-collaboration suggest that such self-collaboration, even with its mirthful and mythic dimensions, would help address the following problems:

1. The need for a physical education imagination: Physical education curriculum and instruction models, for example, ought to be informed more by the creative exploration of teaching experiences and less by the parent discipline literature.

2. The need for an infusion of social consciousness (and social conscience) into research: The notion of value-free inquiry no longer enjoys widespread support. It is time that social conscience, once an integral part of the rhetoric of physical education professors, becomes part of the rationale for, and commitment to, physical education research. Researchers ought not to be able to avoid a confrontation with social problems.

3. The need for a more holistic perspective: In this age of super-specialization, physical education needs a more holistic perspective. Practitioners cannot afford to specialize, to say "I don't deal with that." They must deal with people, not just bodies and not people-as-machines but people who possess perceptions, feelings, values, needs, and so on. Researchers need to understand this perspective and perhaps to adopt some of it.

4. The need to problem-set before problem-solving (Lawson, 1984): Selecting the problems that need to be addressed depends on more than curiosity and serendipity; it requires insight which derives, at least in applied research (whatever that means), from experience.

My self-collaboration experiences as well as my observations of physical education teachers, professors, and their institutional settings suggest that are also some barriers to self-collaboration:

1. Dominance of the neo-Henry subdisciplinary structure of physical education (one result of which is that physical education is now called something else in many universities) impedes paradigmatic looseness and the holistic, social conscience-oriented aspects of self-collaboration.

2. The interest of researchers in complex, intellectually challenging problems may discourage involvement in "real world" problems which are often problems of implementation. As the often-quoted farmer once said. "We don't need no new ideas; we ain't farmin' half as well as we know how now."

3. Many university professors have been attracted to research by its "ivory tower" conditions. Doing self-collaboration requires venturing outside the walls of the ivory tower on a regular basis.

4. The persistent belief that translating research will be sufficient to help practitioners do their job better stands in the way of a consideration of other alternatives.

5. The typical promotion and tenure guidelines in universities do nothing to encourage and a lot to discourage implementation of the self-collaboration concept.

Closing Thoughts

Self-collaboration ought not, indeed, cannot be mandated. However, it needs to be made a viable option for physical education scholars. To do that, the case needs to be argued, and the promotion-tenure/subdisciplinary "skids need to be greased." LSU physical education department head Don Franks has requested that each of his faculty members spend one hour a week in a practitioner or service role. That is a step in the right direction. If they decide to share their experiences, the self-collaboration issue will be further clarified.

Whatever position we take on the issue of self-collaboration one thing is clear (at least to me): the physical education research-practice relationship needs to be reconceptualized.

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Teaching and Learning Together: A Joint Effort by a Physical Education Specialist and a University Professor to Develop a Model Physical Education Program

Tom Ratliffe and Laraine Ratliffe

The purpose of this presentation is to describe our experiences teaching elementary physical education in a university laboratory school. We were part of a collaborative effort between the university and the laboratory school to develop a K-12 model physical education program at the university laboratory school. This report describes our expectations going into the collaboration project and how these expectations were modified to match the reality of the situation.

Tom was hired in a dual-role position. One-half of his assignment was to teach in the teacher preparation department at the university and the other half of the assignment was to teach children physical education in the university laboratory school. He was to bring to the project his experience teaching children and his expertise in curriculum and instruction. This fall semester Tom has been teaching four 30 minute classes everyday from 12:30 to 2:35 pm. He is teaching one each of a Kindergarten, 1st, 2nd, and 3rd grade class that meet for physical education every day. Laraine is employed half-time at the laboratory school and is also teaching one each of a Kindergarten, 1st, 2nd, and 3rd grade class. She was hired for her extensive experience and effectiveness in teaching children.

Tom's long range goals were to develop a model elementary physical education program by teaching classes and consulting with the other elementary teachers and to conduct research on this project. Laraine's position was to teach children and participate in the development of the model physical education program.

Our initial task was to establish an effective learning environment, and then to gradually develop a model program to teach movement skills in the content areas of games, gymnastics, dance, and fitness. As you will see from our reflections of the past four months, we quickly realized that the barriers and resistance to these goals were tremendous.

For the past two years, physical education had been taught by a series of inexperienced teachers and some classes were even taught by university undergraduates. The lack of consistency, management, and structure was evident when we observed that second and third grade classes were oblivious to stop signals and boundaries.

We will share our experiences from our two prospectives--one is from the viewpoint of a university professor returning to a teaching position and the other is from an experienced teacher starting a job in a university laboratory school setting. Our comments come from our written reflections which were done after each day's teaching.

University Professor Returns to Teaching

Although not totally removed from teaching children, I had been away from the role of public school teaching for 9 years. I had been in a university teacher education role as a doctoral student and then assistant professor. Before starting graduate study, I had five years experience as an elementary physical education teacher.

I expected to spend some time on establishing a learning environment and thought that it would take several weeks to whip these kids into shape. My expectation was to quickly shift the focus from management to skill development. Wow, was I mistaken! I quickly realized that this was a chaotic nightmare characterized by:

- constant talking and failure to listen to anyone
- interrupting during directions
- children unable to stay in line to and from class
- complaining, arguing with and hitting each other
- not staying inside boundaries
- yelling and screaming during movement tasks
- misusing equipment
- not stopping on the signal

The list goes on and on. The number of behaviors that teachers have to teach to young children is astonishing and the number of decisions one has to make in a 30 minute class is overwhelming. After teaching four 30 minute classes, I was physically and emotionally exhausted.

Getting control over my classes was a major concern. Many days I felt totally out of control and helpless. The following quotes from my reflections illustrate this concern.

9/12/90: Very noisy class--out of control using the bean bags--need to practice again. Several students were tossing into baskets and throwing wildly. I couldn't tell who was on or off task. I had all sit down and angrily counted the bean bags. Then I had to find three of them. No smile today! (smile stickers were given to classes as rewards if they followed rules).

9/25/90: I ended up screaming and everyone in the gym looked up.

10/1/90: I found myself terribly angry at some children and just started yelling at them.

After a conference with the parents of a kid I angrily bawled out, I was forced to reexamine what I was doing and why I was becoming so frustrated and angry.

I had to redefine my expectations and think about some difficult questions like "Do you like children?" I wanted to teach movement skills to children, not cope and try to solve all their emotional problems.

10/15/90: The complexity of teaching young children has been a shocking experience. There are so many details to take care of--it's like trying to stop a flood by plugging holes--you get one plugged and then another lets loose.

I have this vision of what the class should look like and it (my classes) doesn't come close. So I feel inept, frustrated, helpless, like I just can't do this.

After many discussions with Laraine and sharing of problems, concerns and frustrations, I did re-evaluate my expectations and ended up with a more realistic view of what these children were able to do. After almost eight weeks I was able to feel okay about doing my best and not dwell over the failure of my lessons to go exactly as planned.

11/3/90: Some good aspects to Friday's classes. The 3rd graders scored the kindergarten students on catching tasks. It worked out well and most students had a very good experience. Third graders enjoyed giving directions and observing the children. The kindergarten kids were kept on-task and seemed to enjoy the attention.

I enjoy being around many of the children, teaching them and just talking (interacting with) to them. Joking has been more frequent.

11/7/90: I've arrived! I bought a baseball cap and whistle. The cap is to protect me from the blazing sun and the whistle is to use as a distinct signal that these sports minded kids can relate to.

11/27/90: Had the feeling of being in control of the classes. Even though some students were not listening or following directions, I had an action and felt that the action was appropriate and would help.

A look back at my reflections indicates that the behavior of these children has been inconsistent. The following quote reflects a reoccuring situation.

11/28/90: A horrible day. I had the entire gym and was planned and prepared but students were noisy, off-task, and out of control. I'm depressed about the lack of progress, my feelings of frustration and anger at the lousy behavior.

My notes after the December 4th classes, indicate that some of the class time is devoted to motor skill practice. My focus is on observing students' movement. But day after day there are concerned comments about management and behavior, for example:

12/4/90: A few in each class are off-task, do not participate, do not listen, it makes it very hard to maintain my focus on teaching. Many times specific children are named that are very disruptive and don't follow the rules. These same children reoccur in my notes over the past four months.

12/7/90: My classes were in the gym today. Fortunately, because it was raining. I seemed to be well planned and set up for the classes, but the first class was terrible. On the way to class they became split up, so some got to the gym but many others ended up in the auditorium. Adam refused to get off the equipment in the lobby so I removed him from the class and had the aide take him to the office. The majority of the class was loud and off-task from the beginning. Then Chris became upset and started kicking the boundary cones. When I reprimanded him, he became loud and nasty. I had to stop him from running out the door. He continued to yell and run around the gym, kicking equipment. The first and second grade classes didn't cooperate either. Too much talking, interrupting, off-task behavior.

And a feeling that surfaced frequently in the first two months of teaching is illustrated by my reflection in early October.

10/4/90: I really felt depressed about teaching. Why would anyone want to do this? If I feel like this how can I prepare others (for this work)?

My reactions to student behavior began to change when I was able to see some humor in all this. During a kindergarten class I was carefully monitoring from the perimeter and preparing to change the task, when from the distance I heard a squeaky voice say, "Mr. Ratliffe, report to the office immediately." One of my precocious kindergarten kids had used a boundary marker cone as a megaphone and was practicing her announcer's voice. It sounded just like the school intercom system or one of the K-mart blue light specials.

My experiences over the past four months have reconfirmed the notion that teaching involves so much more than just the class contact time.

9/13/90: Teaching children involves not only executing the lesson, but planning lessons, learning names, preparing equipment, arranging facilities, composing behavior notes for children, discussing concerns with the classroom teachers, calling parents, attending parent-teacher conferences, and reflecting on each day's lessons.

It involves having to do a difficult job in less than ideal conditions.

12/11/90: Difficulty of meeting in different places on so many days--in the gym, outside courts or grass areas, in the classroom if it rains, etc.--we need some stability.

Lessons Learned

1. I've gone through many of the same stages as a beginning teacher such as feeling out of control, the need to manage children, experiencing total frustration, and focusing on concerns about myself.

2. Developing relationships and establishing a learning environment with young children is extremely demanding. You have to find ways to do what is necessary so that you can *survive*. It is essential that you take care of yourself, your needs, do what is necessary to avoid hating the job and giving up.

3. Working with another concerned colleague has been rewarding and extremely helpful in planning and reflecting on teaching. Although there can be drawbacks if it's your wife! I'm sure that I let loose with much more complaining and whining to her than I would have with someone else. Nevertheless, my appreciation for a joint sharing of experiences and collaboration was reinforced. I ended up teaching alone most days and had intense feelings of isolation. This experience has reinforced my opinion that it is valuable for all teachers, especially student teachers and first year teachers to have someone with whom to discuss daily experiences.

4. I have reinforced my view that preparing future teachers must go beyond instruction in curriculum and teaching methods. It has to include strategies to deal with managing children, coping with disappointment and frustration, and surviving in a less than adequate learning environment in physical education.

5. The conflict of roles and expectations between the university and school are always present and at the moment unresolved. I *know* that research much be done on my work. I am really struggling with the demands of both roles--teaching children everyday and spending time on the university expectations of teaching, advising, committee work, research and publishing. I am realizing that I have spent enormous amounts of energy resisting this conflict. So I am trying to accept this situation as the way it is, not fight it anymore, and as the popular shoe saying goes, "Just Do It."

Now Laraine will present her views about working in a collaborative project at a university laboratory school.

Practitioner in a Collaborative Role

As a teacher who has been actively teaching for sixteen years in public schools, I have had the opportunity to cooperate with universities in the following ways:

1. serving as a resource site for preservice teachers to observe examples of effective teaching;

2. working with practicum students in clinical settings;

3. supervising student teachers;

4. assisting with the development and administering of joint projects such as:

a. University of South Carolina Goodbodies Programs (fitness for overweight children)
b. teaching fitness concepts in physical education
c. measuring skill performance
d. presenting workshops on teaching fitness concepts and movement based elementary physical education programs.

From these experiences, I had some rather concrete notions of what a model physical education program would look like.

In my present job, I am teaching one kindergarten, 1st, 2nd, and 3rd grade class and assisting with the development and implementation of a model elementary physical education program. I was excited about the challenge of teaching in a laboratory school and developing a model physical education program that would hopefully serve as a model for the university, the local area and the state of Florida. This was the written goal stated by the university and the laboratory school position paper. I had high expectations for myself and for the school. Some of my expectations were that:

1. the elementary staff would implement a curriculum that reflects a movement concepts and skill themes approach;
2. the staff would develop and evaluate procedures for measuring and documenting student progress;
3. the laboratory school would provide an optimal environment for teaching and learning;
4. the teachers at the laboratory school would model effective instructional strategies;
5. the classroom atmosphere in physical education would reflect positive values, a sense of accomplishment for both teachers and students, and enjoyment of the lessons;
6. the laboratory school would be a site for preservice and inservice teachers to observe a quality physical education program that demonstrates sound curriculum goals, effective instructional methods and assessments of students' progress;
7. I would assist in research efforts to enhance learning and effective instruction;
8. I would develop the content by using the instructional techniques of extension, refinement, and application to present tasks to students.

My expectations for collaboration with the university coordinator were based on past experiences of working with university professionals. Those expectations included:

1. joint discussion and planing to establish goals, curriculum content, instructional strategies, and management techniques;
2. observation of teaching episodes;
3. assistance in resolving barriers to effective teaching and learning;
4. assistance with measuring skill performance;
5. sharing and discussing research information.

Effective teaching requires a substantial amount of time and effort to plan and execute lessons well. However, it was clear that this collaborative model program project would increase the demands. More time would be needed to meet to collect data, reflect on teaching, discuss problems, generate possible solutions, read and discuss articles, and to view and code videotapes. As a practitioner my professional interest was stimulated by these considerable challenges. Further, I believed that this project with university and school support and funding had a real opportunity to succeed in its goal of creating a model physical education program for students.

From my practitioner's point of view I hoped the collaborative project would achieve the following outcomes:

1. provide accountability by establishing procedures for measuring students progress;
2. develop educational dance and gymnastic offerings in the curriculum;
3. expand the teaching of fitness concepts and the improvement of the students personal fitness levels;
4. improve students' skill performance;
5. incorporate identified benchmarks into the goals and objectives of our curriculum;
6. develop and evaluate strategies for effective teaching skills;
7. provide a network for teachers to share concerns and ideas and to facilitate continued professional growth with such activities as support groups, workshops, and course offerings.

Up to this point I have stated what I felt could ultimately evolve from the difficult work of developing a model physical education program. I felt it would be possible for the elementary area because the three teachers involved were professionals who planned lessons and taught using a movement framework.

Since I am presently immersed in the collaborative project, it is difficult to stand back and sort out all my feelings, but here are my views at the present time. There have been let downs, but fortunately there have also been small victories that continue to propel Tom, me and the project forward.

Let Downs

1. The realization that I didn't adequately foresee the difficulties of teaching in a K-12 school. Frequent problems are that some secondary students use inappropriate language and taunt elementary students to and from class; we have to supervise the gym area to prevent loitering by middle and high school students during and after school; a sea of secondary students on lunch break surrounds us when setting up, collecting or dismissing our classes and even when teaching classes. Of course, they are not even aware that their actions are so disruptive to our efforts at conducting a positive learning experience for us and our students.

2. No one is available to observe and provide feedback to me on my lessons.

3. Limited time to plan together. We both had many meetings and personal appointments. Tom, the university coordinator, has other university responsibilities.

4. Feeling mentally and emotionally exhausted after a particularly trying afternoon of teaching. You just want to get out of the environment and release the negative feelings.

5. Feeling isolated.

6. The FSU laboratory school has been named a Red Carpet School, which is a national honor of distinction and excellence in education. The faculty and principal are dedicated and caring professionals. However, the 1990-91 school year was the first time the school issued a school handbook and behavior code. The parents and children were even required to sign a contract at the end of the booklet verifying that it had been read. This indicates to me that the entire school staff and administrators felt that there were significant problems with inappropriate and disruptive behavior to lead them to take action. The kinks are being worked out, but, also the consistent application of consequences has been difficult.

7. After a number of weekly meetings with the elementary and middle school staff it became clear to Tom and me that the project had somehow missed the boat on bringing about growth and change. To be effective the effort should have been fostered from within and be inclusive rather than thrusted upon from outside and exclusive--a top down model. The University personnel and school administrators conceived the model project and simply expected the school physical education staff to take on and implement the idea. A clear consensus of the ramifications of the model was missing.

8. In the past, I had come to regard myself as somewhat of an expert at establishing a learning environment. I have had to do it in seven elementary schools. I even have given workshops on it, but establishing the learning environment has been terribly difficult and the process did not seem to be accelerated by the fact that classes met five days a week as opposed to only two days a week.

The letdowns reveal that my hopes and expectations were assaulted by a dose of reality checks--my perceptions of the school situation and atmosphere were beginning to be shaped by my view of reality and not the one painted by the university dean, university physical education faculty, or school administrators.

Small Victories

1. When the kindergarten teacher asked her class to list three things that they had learned thus far at school, "how to catch" was on their list.

2. Even though you were very firm, upset, or even grouchy the day before, the children still smile, say hello, and give you a hug.

3. Finally, after 10 lessons they are staying inside the boundaries.

4. The barn dance to accompany the PTO covered dish supper was a big success. The 2nd and 3rd grade children loved showing and then leading everyone in the African dance, "Ibo."

5. There were no hitting incidents today!

6. I intend to survive this professional experience.

7. The good notes are giving me a chance to focus on positive efforts by the students.

8. It is November, and Donald actually tried to remain on-task and follow directions for the entire class. Now, I know it is possible!

9. I remained calm, took deep breaths and even laughed at some of their antics today.

10. Thank goodness for the playground bars. They have been helpful with developing the skill of listening to and responding to signals. I am actually seeing students take responsibility for their own actions!

Summary

This report describes our initial experiences in a long-term collaboration project. Our efforts in the first four months have been to confront problems, develop solutions, and support each other in the difficult period of establishing the learning environment and coping with the barriers associated with change.

Our efforts at working in a university laboratory school to develop a model physical education program have resulted in both positive and negative experiences. We have become more aware of our expectations for the laboratory school, our mutual goals for children, and our different perspectives resulting from our roles as a university professor and a public school teacher. After four months there are many more problems than solutions, but we still have the desire to work together to meet the particular needs of both of us--the professor and the practitioner.

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From Cooperation To Collaboration: A Case Study

Becky W. Pissanos, Pamela C. Allison, and Janet Frederick

For some time, in the education community, there has been a resounding cry for increased and stronger working relationships between schools and institutions of higher education. In physical education, authors have suggested a variety of reasons for why this greater interdependence is desired. These reasons have included higher education faculty and K-12 practitioners working together to:

1. increase parity, communication, and respect between each other (Graham, 1988; Griffin & Hutchinson, 1988);
2. improve preservice education programs (Martinek & Schempp, 1988);
3. improve K-12 physical education programs (Anderson, 1988; Griffin & Hutchinson, 1988; Martinek & Butt, 1988; Ratliffe, 1988);
4. fight teacher isolation (Templin, 1988; Pissanos, 1989);
5. foster and support continued professional education (Barrett, 1988; Faucette, 1988; Graham, 1988; Griffin & Hutchinson, 1988; Pissanos, 1989; Schwager & Doolittle, 1988);
6. seek solutions to the practical problems of practitioners (Almond & Thorpe, 1988; Graham, 1988; Martinek & Butt, 1988);
7. generate knowledge through research (Schempp & Martinek, 1988).

If greater interdependence between schools and institutions of higher education has this much potential for improving what happens to physical educators and in the physical education classroom, it is important to understand the nature and context of these relationships.

As you read the general education and physical education literature you will note that authors predominately use the word "collaboration" to describe any level or type of interaction between individuals or the organizations that they represent. By lumping all interorganizational relationships into one category, professionally we face the danger of never understanding the nature, facilitators, and inhibitors of any one interdependent strategy. This muddled state may significantly impede our progress toward accomplishing the goal of improving what happens to physical educators and in the physical education classroom.

A useful way to study the nature and context of organizational interdependence is through a typology, or framework. For the purpose of our discussion, we have chosen to utilize one created by Cervero and Young (1987). Their typology was designed to conceptualize the nature of interorganizational relationships that could exist between providers of continued professional education. The authors defined the typology as a "continuum of organizational interdependence... along which six qualitatively different orientations can be identified" (p. 422). The six orientations, or action strategies, are "monopoly, parallelism, competition, cooperation, coordination, and collaboration" (Cervero, 1988, p. 96). These orientations are presented on a continuum from least to greatest interdependence. The continuum is meant to be comprehensive in that it includes "all possible ways" (p. 96) in which organizations can interact with one another. It was *not* meant to suggest that "greater interdependence is more highly valued or [a more] successful action strategy than less interdependence" (Cervero, 1988, p. 96).

Logically, if by choice, representatives of two organizations come together to work on interdependent activities, they have moved on Cervero and Young's (1987) continuum to a point beyond a competitive action strategy. Since this has been the case in our situation, the three orientations, or action strategies, representing the greater levels of interdependence (cooperation, coordination, and collaboration) are the foci for our presentation. Cervero offered the following definitions for these orientations:

- Cooperation -- the strategy where organizations "assist each other on an ad hoc basis" (Whetten cited in Cervero, 1988, p. 97)
- Coordination -- the strategy where organizations "ensure that their activities take into account those of others on a consistent basis" (Linsay, Queeney, Smutz cited in Cervero, 1988, p. 98)
- Collaboration -- the strategy where organizations are "working together jointly and continuously on a particular project towards a specific goal" (Linsay, Queeney, Smutz cited in Cervero, 1988, p. 98)

A cooperative interorganizational task would be clearly defined, narrow in focus, short-term, and be of minor importance to the overall goal of the interorganizational activity. Throughout the interorganizational activity the individual organizations would also maintain their autonomous nature (Goldman and Intriligator, 1990).

Coordinative activities are jointly supported by both organizations and take place on a more continuous basis. In these types of activities, the organizations involved are required to make more decisions about the responsibilities and obligations of each organization and what conditions have to be met to accomplish the activity (Goldman and Intriligator, 1990).

Finally, collaborative activities require extensive organizational interdependence. In fact, collaborative activities typically are those that could not be accomplished by a single organization. These activities require that the organizations agree upon the objectives and conditions and provide an integrated support system (Goldman and Intriligator, 1990).

Purpose

The purpose of our presentation is to provide an illustrative physical education case example of a developing interdependent relationship between a school practitioner, Janet Frederick, and two higher education faculty members, Pam Allison and me, Becky Pissanos. Our case study illustrates how our particular interdependent relationship has moved on the organizational relationship continuum from cooperation through coordination to collaboration.

Method

Case studies offer the potential for holistically studying with great depth and detail a particular phenomenon in the appropriate context (Patton, 1990). An information rich case can provide insights toward better understanding the phenomenon in question.

Bromley (1986) stated that a simple standard case report includes information about the person, the situation, and the outcome. The report should identify and describe the person, or persons, involved in the case and the action in which they are engaged. It should also report the constraints, opportunities, and contingencies related to the case context. Finally, the case description must explain the outcomes, or changes, that take place in the person, or persons, and the changes in the situation.

We hope that our illustrative case example provides you with insights into the nature of and potential for breadth and depth in interinstitutional relationships. The format for the remainder of our presentation includes: 1) a brief description of the participants; 2) a portraiture of our cooperative, coordinative, and collaborative interdependent activities; 3) an explanation of the facilitators and inhibitors to our interdependence; and 4) a discussion of the insights we have gained as a result of participating in these activities.

Participants

Janet Frederick is a K-6 elementary school physical education teacher in a small elementary school in rural northwest Ohio. She has been teaching at the same school, Liberty Center Elementary, for the past 19 years. She is the only physical education teacher in the school and she teaches approximately 250 children a day. She works with each class in the school two times a week. Janet has both a Bachelor's and a Master's degree from Bowling Green State University. In addition to teaching, Janet is professionally involved in the Ohio Association for Health, Physical Education, Recreation and Dance. Janet's outstanding contributions to elementary school physical education have resulted in her being selected as the 1991 Ohio Elementary Physical Education Teacher of the Year.

Pam Allison and I are on the faculty at Bowling Green State University. Pam is an Associate Professor and I am an Assistant Professor. Pam is currently serving as the Interim Chair of the Physical Education Division of which we are both faculty members. We share a teaching specialization in elementary school physical education teacher education. In terms of research specialization, Pam is most noted for her work in observation as a teaching skill. My primary interest is the continued professional learning of experienced elementary school physical education teachers. Together we are also involved in research on the teaching/learning process at the elementary school level. Both of us are active on university committees and in our professional organizations.

The interdependent relationship among the three of us has been and continues to be evolving. Most of our discussion today will be related to what has happened during the last four years in which Janet, Pam, and I have been working together. It should be noted, however, that Pam and Janet began their association two years prior to my arrival at Bowling Green. It should also be noted that since her undergraduate days and prior to her contact with Pam, Janet had maintained a link with other physical education teacher educators at the university. These associations served as the basis for much of our initial work together as a threesome. Janet is the next presenter and will be describing the nature of our interdependent relationship.

Cooperative Activities

As Becky stated, I will be describing the nature of our interdependent relationship as we have moved from cooperative through coordinative to collaborative activities. Cooperation has been defined as the strategy where organizations assist each other on an ad hoc basis while maintaining their independence. I will be describing seven cooperative interactions.

The first example of a cooperative strategy can be applied to a video-taping project in which Becky requested permission to video tape my classes for a full day. The purpose of the project was to begin a tape bank for use in her teacher education classes. My responsibility was to carry on classes as if Becky and the camera were a normal part of the room. Prior to the taping date, Becky and I discussed what units were in progress and the grade levels available for taping. Becky was able to collect six tapes while I maintained my normal learning environment.

The second cooperative instance involved Becky bringing university students to Liberty Center for field experiences. The university students observed and/or assisted in several of my classes. Becky was responsible for the observing and assisting schedule, student transportation, and helping me integrate the university students as teaching assistants.

Examples three, four, and five relate to advisement of a professional nature. I initiated a discussion with Pam on arguments I might employ to seek permission for my students to participate barefooted for portions of their physical education program. Although the request was denied by the school board, Pam's assistance helped me to formulate my position.

The fourth cooperative illustration revolves around the care of my tile gym floor which is wet mopped immediately prior to class creating an unsafe situation. Despite repeated requests, my principal had not come up with a solution. Becky found an article in a professional journal concerning a student who had slipped on a wet floor during a physical education class and ultimately filed a legal suit against the school. Upon my principal's receipt of the article the mops are no longer quite so wet and a fan is started when the mopping begins. As a result, the situation has improved.

The need for a parent's release form precipitated the fifth cooperative activity. I wanted photographs and videotapes taken of my students while working to be available to me for educational purposes. Pam was able to put me in touch with an educational lawyer who advised me on the development of a form.

In the sixth cooperative case, Pam again took the role of advisor. She was aware that I was depressed about the results of a community survey ranking attitudes toward programs at the school. The elementary school physical education program ranking was in the average to below average range. Pam was enormously helpful in guiding me toward a public relations campaign to change the image of elementary school physical education at Liberty Center. A series of articles about the games curriculum appeared in the local newspaper and consecutive PTO programs individually highlighted games, dance, and gymnastics which helped to improve the community's perception of physical education.

The seventh example is related to recommendations Pam made for my professional development. She advised that I join the American Alliance for Health, Physical Education, Recreation and Dance. This membership provided me with a vehicle to receive professional information. It also provided me with a way to contribute to the profession. At the same time Pam suggested membership, she also encouraged me to submit an article to one of the professional journals sponsored by AAHPERD. As a result of this encouragement I subsequently had an article published in *Strategies*.

In summary, allow me to restate the cooperative activities. They included video-taping classes, field experiences, consultations on shoes, floor, and parental release forms, and advisory roles pertaining to public relations and professional growth opportunities. These cooperative activities allowed us to interact with one another while maintaining our independence.

Coordinative Activities

As I relate the activities chosen as coordinative examples, please recall that the characteristics of coordinative events involve both organizations making decisions as to their responsibilities and obligations so that they are accountable for the accomplishment of activity goals. There are four coordinative examples.

The first coordinative example involves the placement of student teachers at Liberty Center. Pam has served as supervising teacher and I as the cooperating teacher for several student teachers. The student teaching triad allowed Pam and me to work together for an extended period of time. We were both responsible for facilitating the student teacher's development as an effective instructor.

The second coordinative experience was a complex activity that required significant planning. Becky invited me and two of my elementary school classes to present demonstration lessons on campus for BGSU students and faculty. My responsibilities included choosing the units of work and preparing the students beforehand. Becky's responsibilities included making transportation and on campus arrangements. The result was a successful demonstration of children's physical education lessons for university preservice teachers and an exciting adventure for my students.

The third coordinative undertaking was a research project. I was a participant in a curriculum study designed and conducted by Pam and Becky. Our contacts related to this project took place over a three month period. My involvement was critical to the completion of this project.

The fourth coordinative effort was initiated by me and supported by Pam and Becky. I needed people knowledgeable about the content upon which I base units of work to make judgements as to the quality of work produced by my students. Final dance sequences in a particular unit were video-taped. Pam and Becky critiqued the sequences in relation to the unit focus and objectives and provided me with the desired feedback. They also retained a copy of the tape as a useful teaching tool for their university classes.

In summary, the coordinative projects included the placement of student teachers at Liberty Center, demonstration lessons at BGSU, a research study, and the critiquing of student work via video tape.

Collaborative Activities

Collaboration, the final level of interdependence to be discussed, is characterized by the inability of one organization to obtain a specific goal without the joint and continuous support from another organization. I will be discussing six collaborative examples.

The first collaborative experience was the preparation and presentation of a national convention workshop. The workshop was presented by two university faculty members and four practitioners. The group included Pam and me. Pam's responsibilities included the coordination of the presentation, preparation of materials, and the leading of two sessions. I was responsible for a gymnastics demonstration lesson. The result of the collaboration was a successful representation of the elementary school physical education teacher preparation program at BGSU.

The first presentation spawned a second collaborative undertaking. The same group recreated the sessions for our own state convention. Pam and I repeated our original responsibilities.

The initial presentation generated a third collaborative venture. Pam and I were invited to make a presentation to a group of fifty Virginia elementary school physical education teachers based on two gymnastics units and Pam's expertise in pedagogical observation.

The fourth example of collaboration is the shared experience of teaching different sections of the same methods course at the university. On two separate occasions I have been a part-time faculty member at BGSU. The sharing of notes, handouts, tests, and activities between the three of us continually develops a unique course of study. I believe the blending of their work with the perspective I bring to the college classroom as a practitioner offers the university students a more complete illustration of how they need to function in the elementary school physical education classroom.

Pam, Becky, and I joined together in the fifth collaborative case as researchers. All three of us are interested in the teaching/learning process and how it is successfully facilitated in the elementary school physical education setting. Due to this interest we are collaborating in a process/product research study. This project is currently in the phase of data analysis.

Our final example resulted from the realization that the process of preparing this paper has been a collaborative endeavor. We have worked jointly and continuously in an interdependent relationship in preparing this case report for presentation.

In summary, the six collaborative examples included a presentation at a national conference, a recreation of the workshop at our own state convention, an inservice for a city school district, teaching of a university methods course, becoming co-researchers, and our presentation here today. All of these examples portray the intertwining of university faculty and practitioner where dependence upon each other for the accomplishment of goals is obvious. Pam will now identify and explore the facilitators and inhibitors of our interaction.

Facilitators and Inhibitors

Within the multifaceted dimensions of the interdependent relationships that Janet has just described, certain aspects of the identified context and certain characteristics of the participants served as facilitators or inhibitors to this constantly evolving process of interaction. Facilitators help to promote or advance a relationship contributing positively to its construction and maintenance. Inhibitors influence a relationship in counterproductive ways of obstructing, restricting, or suppressing it. Facilitators and inhibitors are invariably present in any interdependent relationship. It is my purpose today to identify and describe selected facilitators and inhibitors that advanced or obstructed the relationship of this case example.

Facilitators

The facilitators of our relationship were of three types: 1) individual; 2) institutional; and 3) contextual. Facilitators defined as individual are those associated with personal characteristics of the three participants. Institutional facilitators are those that exist as part of the institutional structure independent of our particular relationship. Contextual facilitators evolve within the context of our cooperative, coordinative, and collaborative relationship and are associated with our particular case.

Individual facilitators. From the individual category type, one of the most facilitating aspects of our relationship is the philosophical match the three of us have. We share a similar philosophical perspective most commonly called the Movement Approach to elementary school physical education. This matched perspective facilitates understanding in our professional discussions because we know we share the same beliefs about children and how they learn, have the same goals for physical education, and agree on the best way to achieve our goals. We do not have to spend time verifying "where we are coming from" nor do we have to attempt to accommodate differing philosophies in planning and executing our actions.

The second facilitator is related to a shared commitment to excellence. As we have participated in the different dimensions of our cooperative, coordinative, and collaborative relationship, we have operated from the base that we are trying to produce our best effort in each project we undertake. Knowing that each person is so committed creates an atmosphere that permits ideas to develop and actions to flourish.

Similarly, the fact that we three are intense individuals and the fact that we have perfectionist tendencies facilitate the notion of interdependency in our relationship. We work well together because we work at the same level of dedication and toward the same level of desired outcomes. That all three of us share these two characteristics is what makes them facilitators. They would have to be considered inhibitors if only one or two of us possessed them.

Having trust as an aspect of our relationship is the next facilitator. We assign individual tasks, divide work, and seek advice from one another trusting each other to carry the job through to completion in the manner desired.

To review, the individual facilitators of a personal nature that prompt and advance our interdependent relationship are 1) philosophical match; 2) commitment to excellence; 3) participant intensity; 4) perfectionist tendencies; and 5) interpersonal trust.

Institutional facilitators. Institutional facilitators exist as part of the organization structure within our respective institutions. Thus, the source of the facilitation is outside the personal realm of the three participants but aids in maintaining and encouraging interaction. The institutional facilitators are 1) administrative support and 2) financial support.

Administratively, both institutions support projects between schools and universities. We enjoy support from Janet's superintendent of schools. She is interested in our joint associations and recognizes that we seek opportunities to work in her system because of the quality of the elementary school physical education program. The Liberty Center elementary school principals have also acknowledged the mutually beneficial nature of collaboration with university teacher education programs and accommodated our requests for access to the school as promptly and thoroughly as possible. For example, Janet's principal eagerly embraced our major collaborative research project by supporting the purposes of the research and meeting our requests for space requirements, schedule accommodations, technical assistance, and intrusion into the daily routine of his school. Becky and I also receive administrative support from our institution, Bowling Green State University. The strategic plan of our college, under the leadership of the dean, has, as one of its objectives, the enhancement of collaborative relationships with local area schools.

Our interdependent relationship has also been supported financially at different points as the need arose. Internal university funds were available to 1) bring Janet and children to the university for demonstration lessons; 2) assist Janet's travel to a conference as a co-presenter with university faculty; and 3) support the expenses of data collection for research. Financial support has enabled our collaboration to occur and has eased the burden of supply from other sources.

Contextual facilitators. Certain aspects of the contexts within which we work aid the development of our relationship in different ways. These are referred to as contextual facilitators. First, within our respective situations, we enjoy the freedom to set our own agendas for defining our relationship. Because Janet is the only elementary school physical education teacher in her system and there is no officially prescribed physical education curriculum to follow, she is free to determine objectives, curriculum content, content sequencing, and evaluation procedures for her program. As university teacher education faculty we enjoy academic freedom including the determination of how to frame an interdependent relationship with Janet. Obviously, we do have some broad restrictions, but generally we have control over how our relationship is defined. Freedom is facilitating.

The notion that our relationship is based on what we do best and in what we are most interested is the second contextual facilitator. Because we are competent teacher educators and teachers of children's physical education and our interdependent activities are conducted in these two arenas, there is little or no risk in our coming together. We approach our interactions from a secure footing because we are operating from a basis of perceived strength.

Inhibitors

Inhibitors were previously defined as influencing

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a relationship in counterproductive ways by obstructing, restricting, or suppressing interaction. The inhibitors to the relationship described in this case example were identified by the participants involved and fell into the same three categories as the facilitators: 1) individual inhibitors; 2) institutional inhibitors; and 3) contextual inhibitors.

Individual inhibitors. The three of us do not share lifestyles and because we have the amount of contact with one another that we do at various times, lifestyle has an impact on our relationship. One of us is widowed, one of us is in a 400-mile commuter marriage, and one of us is married and has a six-year-old daughter. It is difficult to balance personal and professional time and even more so when professionally one increases time demands by voluntarily entering into a time consuming interdependent relationship with other educators. Aside from time, lack of familial support and personal problems outside the professional realm and of the magnitude that affect one's work have also inhibited the interdependent nature of our relationship. The three of us cannot join together strictly in a professional sense. We bring our individual differing lifestyles with us and we get one another's lifestyles in the exchange. Although we are friends, inhibitors are generated by the conflict in lifestyles.

In interdependent relationships, the possibility exists that an individual may become more dependent on the relationship for a particular element than the others involved. When that happens the overdependency may serve as an inhibitor. Such has been the case in our relationship. Our interaction has served as a major source for professional reaffirmation of jobs well done for one of us. That places pressure on the other two to continue to make our interactive contacts reaffirming and sometimes causes us to approach contacts with one another cautiously.

Institutional inhibitors. The daily schedule is the first institutional inhibitor to be presented. In terms of times to make contact with one another, Becky and I are restricted to relatively small time frames in speaking with Janet during the day. She is not especially accessible because of her teaching schedule and the nature of the elementary school day. Although Becky and I spend more time in our offices, Janet has the same problem. Often we are relegated to doing business at night at home intruding on each other's nonschool time. In addition to contact times, daily schedules serve as an inhibitor in another way. Trying to match a university class schedule with an elementary school schedule and trying to cover all the desired elements of the interaction, for example, having university students observe both upper and lower grade levels during a field experience, require flexibility and accommodation. It takes extra effort and sometimes we just simply cannot work it out.

The second institutional inhibitor is related to general demands on our time. Entering into an interdependent relationship with another institution does not replace any of our other job responsibilities. That relationship must be carried on in addition to our primary load assignments. Often other priorities move to the forefront and our interdependent relationship must recede into the background. This is particularly true for two of us due to a shift in position responsibilities. Since the beginning of our relationship, Becky has moved from a temporary full-time teaching position to a tenure track position with all its additional responsibilities and expectations. I have moved into the position of department chair with half of my load assignment now in administration. These shifting responsibilities have created new demands on time and energy and have detracted from our interdependent relationship with Janet by decreasing our availability for this aspect of our positions.

The third institutional inhibitor is the distance between our schools. We are 28 miles, or 45 kilometers, apart in an area of the country with bad winter, fall, and spring driving conditions. We cannot pop back to school if we forget a tripod for video-taping nor can we drop by informally for a visit or a chat. Thus, the distance restricts our interaction to more planned opportunities.

The last inhibitor in this category is concerned with the lack of institutional rewards for entering into interdependent relationships with other institutions. Janet receives no load consideration nor merit pay, nor any formal reward for engaging in cooperative, coordinative, or collaborative projects with us. Likewise, Becky and I do not receive any special consideration at tenure, promotion, merit, or load assignment time for our interinstitutional relationship. I would venture to say that lack of formal institutional rewards has not restricted the relationship, but has shaped it in particular ways.

Contextual inhibitors. Contextual inhibitors are those that evolve within the context of our cooperative, coordinative, and collaborative relationship and are associated with our particular case. The contextual inhibitors for us include: 1) the ad hoc basis of our relationship; and 2) additional interdependent relationships with other institutions.

First, our relationship has been formed and is still evolving mostly on an ad hoc basis. By ad hoc basis, I mean that we do not have a formal organizational structure or identified objectives to shape and direct our activities. We come together in more informal ways because of the interests and needs that emerge from our professional worlds and we see cooperation, coordination, and collaboration as a way to give meaning and develop answers to the questions we ask ourselves within those worlds.

The second contextual inhibitor emerges in our particular case because of interinstitutional contacts we have with other elementary school physical education teachers in nearby school systems. Because we have more contacts with Janet and those contacts are more involved and more varied, we have to work to insure that our non-Liberty Center contacts are of sufficient number and depth to keep the other interinstitutional relationships developing and thriving.

Summary

In viewing our cooperative, coordinative, and collaborative relationship in its broadest context and in locating the facilitators and inhibitors to our interaction within that context, the following points are noted. First, facilitators were uniformly across the three of us. If an aspect facilitated the process for one of us, it did so for all of us. That point may not be surprising when considering the individual facilitators as they were of the shared-personal-characteristic variety. It is more unusual that the institutional and contextual facilitators facilitated equally across the participants. We might speculate that those conditions helped draw our institutions toward one another or we might just chalk one up to luck. Inhibitors, however, did not uniformly inhibit across the three of us. Sometimes only one of us brought the inhibiting aspect to the relationship which, of course, would eventually affect us all. Thus, inhibitors were experienced differentially by each of us.

The second point to be made in summary here is that the facilitators and inhibitors operated differentially across the cooperative, coordinative, and collaborative action strategies within our relationship. What served as an inhibitor in a collaborative relationship may have been nonfunctional in a cooperative one. For example, the distance between our institutions had an inhibiting effect on scheduling for our major collaborative research project, but no impact on our informal professional information exchanges of a cooperative nature.

The importance each of us places on specific facilitators and inhibitors is different among us, however, as a group, we tend to find 1) philosophical match; 2) freedom to create our own agendas; and 3) relationship based on perceived strength as the most facilitating. We find 1) time and position demands; 2) additional institutional relationships; and 3) the ad hoc basis of our relationship to be the most inhibiting. In an interdependent relationship, facilitators and inhibitors must be recognized for their enabling or disabling effects in order to maximize or minimize their influence.

Conclusion

We would like to summarize the outcomes, or things we have learned, as a result of being involved in interdependent organizational relationships. First, collaboration is *not* the only valuable interdependent relationship possible between school practitioners and higher education faculty. From each cooperative, coordinative, and collaborative activity in which we have been involved, we, and our institutions, have benefitted. Collaborative activities are certainly to be valued, but we have learned that cooperative or coordinative activities, at times, better met our objectives and needs. For the future, we plan to continue to explore the potential of all three orientations. We maintain the belief that the significant principle is that we work together toward common goals.

Second, successful interdependent organizational relationships require a substantial commitment from all the individuals involved and adequate facilitators to support that involvement. Without the commitment to each other, commitment to the objectives of our projects, and the presence of adequate facilitators, the inhibitors associated with the projects, at times, would have been too great for us to overcome.

Third, we have become acutely aware that the purposes of our institutions, although very similar in the greater educational scheme of things, are fundamentally different. For interdependent relationships to exist between the two, we must openly acknowledge these differences and seek ways in which both institutions can more explicitly benefit from the joint activities.

In conclusion, our interdependent involvement has offered us the opportunity to get to know each other and our work worlds in greater depth. It has provided us with a stronger and more direct line of communication through which we are now more able to address issues and concerns of common interest to each of us. Our interdependent activities are framing the foundation for improvement of our programs at the elementary school and the university. They are providing us with a means to fight teacher isolation and to foster and support continued professional learning. Finally, our activities are offering us the potential to contribute to our profession through reports of our research projects and presentations related to our activities. We hope that our illustrative case example of how we have brought our two institutions together in cooperative, coordinative, and collaborative activities has provided you with insights into the nature of and potential for breadth and depth in interinstitutional relationships.

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From the Beginning: The Multiple Realities of Collaborative Projects Involving Physical Educators from Schools and Colleges

Deborah G. Coffin

Introduction

As a former schoolteacher returning to campus after spending twelve years in the trenches, I was determined to make a connection between teachers' lives in the public schools and the abundance of knowledge which exists on university campuses. Much to my chagrin, however, the literature reported scores of attempts, pages full of suggestions, and even a reasonable number of analyses regarding successes and failures. The recurring theme was cautionary if not outright gloomy -- such connections are difficult to create, fragile to sustain and often simply impossible. Every description warned potential collaborators of the problems which are inherent in any attempt to combine school and university expertise.

It was clear why making this connection between school-based expertise and university-based knowledge has been difficult. The literature which reflected both teacher-initiated research and efforts to involve teachers and professors in collaborative inquiry revealed two recurring factors: 1) lack of teacher understanding of the research process and 2) lack of teacher ownership of the problem studied. When either or both of these conditions are present, the consequence is seen in the disconnection of knowledge systems -- neither teachers nor professors/researchers profit from what the other knows.

Recent attempts to alleviate those problems have resulted in the development of organizational strategies which address the problem of combining the expertise of classroom teachers and university personnel. Examples of these strategies include educational reform efforts which focus on the establishment of professional development schools (Holmes Report, 1990) and a renewed interest in action research (Martinek & Butt 1988; Nodie Oja & Smulyan 1989). Unfortunately, the perplexing issues of providing adequate institutional support in the form of time and resources continues to hamper even these more sophisticated collaborative efforts.

Schempp & Martinek (1988, p.211) warn ominously that "collaborative research guarantees no safe harbor from the difficult problems facing physical education." They do suggest, however, that a concerted and combined effort by university and school personnel working in tandem may open doors and reveal opportunities which have not previously been utilized by the profession. Interested in the potential benefits of collaboration, and also determined to allow teachers' voices to be heard on issues related to research and school/university collaboration, I set out to interview participants involved in physical education collaborative projects.

Review of Literature

A review of literature revealed that most of the reports dealing with teacher engagement in research is written by professors, (Almond, 1986; Duckworth, 1986; Fisher & Berliner, 1979; Hord, 1985) and most of the literature on collaboration is written by participants (Jones & Maloy, 1988; Oja & Pine, 1983; Sirotnik & Goodlad, 1988; Tickunoff & Ward, 1983). Both teachers' own accounts of the collaboration experience, and analyses of the collaborative process by independent observers were largely missing. In order to provide an alternative vantage which filled these gaps in the literature, I chose to solicit and record teachers' as well as professors' perceptions of participation in collaborative work, and to investigate school/university projects as an outsider.

As a former school teacher and as a student engaged in advanced graduate study, my research questions made use of the fact that I had spent a significant amount of time immersed in both the school and university cultures. As an outsider with an insiders' qualifications, I could be perceived as a relatively safe entity for participants. On both sides of the fence, this not only eased access to project participants, but also allowed more rapid development of sufficient trust to enable relatively frank conversation with people at school and university sites.

Before embarking on my study, I was certain that whoever initiated a collaborative project ultimately would be the owner of that project -- at least in the sense of regarding the end producst as "their own," if not also in the sense of exercising full control over all aspects of the collaborative process. With that assumption guiding my thoughts, I posed the following five research questions:

1. How does the initiation of a collaborative project affect the feelings of ownership among participants?
2. What were the multiple and shared realities which existed in each relationship?
3. What was the impact of the perceived status differences among participants?
4. How were decision-making processes negotiated?
5. What were the participants' perceptions of project ownership?

Purpose of Study

The purpose of the study was to capture teachers' and professors' perceptions of the initiation process and the resultant effects on the collaborative relationship.

Project Criteria

The criteria developed for selection of collaborative projects required that each enterprise involve: at least one school and one college, documented goals, at least ten meetings involving participants, and primary focus on one of the following: programs and curriculum development, teacher development, school reform, or collaborative research. Only one project was selected which did not meet all of the criteria. In that instance the participants had not met formally ten times, but did communicate through the mail, over the phone, as well as making a number of individual site visits.

Identification of Projects

Recruitment procedures involved mailing 58 letters of inquiry to college/university departments in the Northeast that were listed in the *Physical Education Gold Book* (1987-89). Thirty replies were received, ten of which confirmed involvement in a project with one or more schools. Two projects which focused on student teaching were eliminated, leaving eight projects in which school and university physical educators were working together in ways which met the guidelines established for the study.

Participant Demographics

Although no specific plans were made to sample in ways which would produce a representative group of participants, the selection process provided interviews with a reasonably varied group as far as gender and experience were concerned. Among the fifteen teachers were seven males and eight females whose experience ranged from 2 to 20 years. Among the professors were five males and four females, whose employment at the college level ranged from 3 to 20 years.

Data Collection

Twenty-four 1-1/2 hour semi-structured interviews were conducted with nine professors and 15 teachers. The interview guide was based on categories which the literature had suggested were pivotal issues -- those most often mentioned by organizers of collaborative relationships. Utilization of an extensive but semi-structured interview guide assured that all participants would be asked questions from each category, while allowing flexible variation and probes appropriate to individual responses.

The decision to utilize semi-structured interviews rather than a more phenomenological approach, was based on the desire to raise specific questions about the collaborative experience, and to do so in a way which would allow comparisons between the two groups of university and school personnel. By using an interview guide and introducing myself as a colleague who had worked in both settings, I was able to encourage participants to engage in a focused conversation about their perceptions of working in a school/university project.

Written materials provided by participants were used to formulate brief project descriptions. These descriptions were mailed to participants for comment and correction. Each interview was fully transcribed and entered into The Ethnograph computer program. This allowed identification and sorting of quoted excerpts into previously designated categories. Data analysis consisted of fitting the participant responses into the predesignated categories and sewing a thread through the fabric of each of these eight projects.

Research Questions

Findings for each research question are reported below. It is entirely possible that utilization of other categories for analysis would reveal different insights. Each question and the resultant findings will be presented separately, followed by three messages derived by the researcher while contemplating the delivery of this data.

1. How does the initiation of a collaborative project affect the feelings of ownership among participants?

The most pertinent question here is, whose idea was it? It was my assumption that whoever initiated the idea of forming a collaborative enterprise would develop the stronger sense of ownership. Participants persistently reported, however, that initiation was not a particularly important event in project development. The evidence presented simply did not validate an assertion made in the literature, and which I had accepted from the outset -- that the initiator of a school/university project will carry substantial power into the relationship and a high likelihood of sustaining strong feelings of proprietorship. The data corrected what was an overly simplistic assumption and encouraged a more complicated alternative view of how the process of initiation operated in the eight projects under study. Explanations by participants about initiation varied from vivid recollections about details, to an admission that the participant simply could not recall who was responsible for making the first overture. Two persistent themes did appear, however, and they speak to the complex relationships involved. Teachers *expected* professors to assume the responsibility for organizing any interactions between the school and university. Professors, on the other hand, wanted teachers to be full participants, but were uncertain and anxious about strategies for encouraging them to assume active roles. As one professor put it - "you're always walking on eggshells."

It is unfair to say that the act of initiation, by itself, had very little obvious or easily detectable effect on process, outcome, or feelings of ownership. Professors, however who often did serve as initiators, seemed to be deeply concerned about parity, particularly as it was apparent that teachers did not have enough time to take a salient part in the design of collaborative efforts.

2. What were the multiple and shared realities which existed in each relationship?

Robert Maloy, co-author of the book, *Partnerships for Improving Schools* (1988), provided key construct of the "multiple realities" served to guide much of the analysis which follows. Teachers and professors inhabit such different workplace environments (in terms of social, psychological and organizational characteristics), that their perception of what happens within the partnership often is sufficiently different to constitute separate versions of reality.

The multiple realities which were most evident in these projects involved differences in both perspective and language. Teachers were strongly inclined to understand and assess their project participation in largely and highly individual terms, while professors talked primarily about institutional benefits and group concerns. In the case of language, there were sharp, often dichotomous, ways of speaking about and naming the component elements of collaborations, a point not previously documented in school/university literature, and not anticipated in the preliminary design of the study. Having lived and worked in both settings had done little to prepare me for the fact that the same event could be described in two such disparate vocabularies.

3. What was the impact of the perceived status differences among participants?

This question arose from my own experience with university visitors to my classroom and the collaborative and staff development literature which constantly warns professors to recognize the pitfalls of invading the teacher's turf. It was both surprising and refreshing, therefore, to discover that in these eight projects, everyone interviewed appeared to be content with the status provided by their workplace. Teachers in particular expressed no resentment about such issues as differences in job-related stress, recognition awarded by status in the profession, or salary. Nevertheless, while status differentials were rarely alluded to by teachers, professors, once again, reported the sense of "treading on eggshells." In these projects, at least, the professors must have walked very softly, because easy acceptance and mutual respect characterized most of the descriptions of cross-institutional interaction.

Unlike the defensive actions of classroom teachers described in much of the collaborative literature, the physical education teachers in this study welcomed outsiders. This receptivity appeared to be a combination of two factors: 1) the typically isolated environment within which physical educators work; and 2) the consequent autonomy and self cofidence which work under such conditions engenders.

4. How were decision-making processes negotiated?

Once a project has begun, the procedures and rules for working together must be agreed upon. Of particular interest here is how subordinate and superordinate roles were created and then acted out. The data made clear that negotiation was rarely employed in making decisions at any stage of the projects. Teachers explained that if they didn't agree with a decision of genuine consequence to their work, they simply would disregard it and make their own choice. Out of this firm disposition came an often tacit division of responsibility. Professors made most, or all of broad organzational decisions, but on the scene, problem-solving decisions were left largely to teachers.

5. What were the participants' perceptions of project ownership?

The literature on collaboration emphasizes mutuality and symbiosis as indicators of successful projects in which professors and teachers work together. Consequently, a substantial part of the interview was directed at detecting how much participants felt the project had belonged to them, their institution, or to the relationship they had established with the others in the project team. Unfortunately, participants experienced difficulty expressing their feelings in regard to a personal sense of commitment or ownership. Rather than discuss subjective issues, participants chose to depict the roles and responsibilities carried out by participants, how the project was shared, or the individual investment in that particular project.

A broad generalization about the feelings of ownership indicates that teachers viewed the projects from a personal standpoint, while college personnel took an institutional view. For teachers, the focus of the projects was to improve their teaching effectiveness or to gain educational opportunities for their students. In contrast, college personnel had a wider view of benefits which included such items as the collaborative relationship itself and the positive effect on participant interactions.

Conclusion

Overall, teachers and professors in these projects reported that they enjoyed working together and believed that the association provided valuable experiences for themselves, their students, and their institutions. As in the models of collaboration which encourage mutuality, teachers and professors in these projects had identified individual outcomes which could only be achieved by working together. Teachers, however, were not shy about expressing the need to exercise control over their work. They reported that this was achieved within the collaborative relationship by non-compliance -- they simply did not do somethings which were suggested or requested. How often this actually occurred is unknown, but it is clear that the belief that they could reject advice or demands and maintain ultimate authority over what happened in their classroom was a key factor in allowing collaborative projects to be undertaken. The unique experience of listening to the accounts of collaboration given from both sides of the school/universtiy partnership lead to some cautionary advice for three groups: potential investigators, potential collaborators, and members of the physical education community at large.

Investigators: Identify Taken for Granted Assumptions.

The study illustrates how critical it is, to be constantly aware of the filter provided by one's preconceptions. I did not find some things that were expected in this study. Analysis of the data repeatedly reminded me that my initial view of collaborative relationships was too limited to accomodate the rich variety, considerable ambiguity, and frequent paradoxes produced by the collision of two cultures. Following my review of literature, I was determined that initiation would be a key factor in the success of collaborative projects. I have not entirely abandoned that assumption, but in the eight projects under examination it did not seem to play an integral part in the development of what I found to be productive relationships characterized by mutual respect.

Potential Collaborators: Recognize that Many Physical Education Teachers Welcome Visitors.

Another finding which I expected to reveal was that teachers resented the intrusion of any outsiders in their classroom -- even those bearing overtures of collaboration. The teachers in this study, however, welcomed visitors and never reported any feeling that their work was any less important than that of their professorial colleagues. Although the Ivory Tower image was current among teacher participants, they were enthusiastic about improving communication between schools and universities. Professors, on the other hand, were far more apprehensive about engaging in collaborative ventures.

Physical Education Community: Celebrate Physical Educators Autonomy

Where physical educators in the schools are confident of their autonomy and professional skills, they invite potential collaboration which has been well-planned and is cognizant of the restrictions which apply to their culture. The literature is replete with reports about the defensive nature of classroom teachers, and the consequent difficulties they present to any collaborative effort involving outsiders. It was therefore exciting for me to talk to physical education teachers who welcomed visitors, were confident about their own teaching, and felt they had expertise which made them fully worthy of partnership with their university counterparts.

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Cultural Considerations for Collaboration

Leah Holland Fiorentino

The purpose of this paper is to summarize the key findings of a case study of a school-university collaboration in physical education teacher education. The collaboration studied consisted of the consortium established between a small, local, private university's physical education teacher education faculty and a small N-8 independent school's physical education faculty. This consortium focused their activities on inservice staff development, the development of a placement site for pre-student teachers, student teachers, and graduate interns, and general program development and improvement at both sites. The study reported on cultural differences reflected between sites; the differences serve as the key areas which require additional sensitivity from potential collaborative participants.

Current research shows that school-university collaborations are beginning to have a positive impact on the improvement of programs in both school and university settings (Sirotnik and Goodlad, 1988). Recent research reports positive programs, outcomes and promising futures for collaborative endeavors in the physical education field as well (Doolittle, 1988; Schwager, 1986). The extent of the impact depends on contextual factors present in the educational environments. The factors that influence collaboration can include administrative structures at school and university sites, characteristics of the individuals and the groups, individual and group motives for participation, and the organizational structure of the collaborative effort. The influence of these factors are considered pivotal to the process of collaboration since they form the basic tenets from which the collaborative group begins to function.

Collaboration, including contextual factors, has become an area of research interest for educators that seek to pursue school reform. However, current studies lack both investigative efforts into, and substantive data collection of, the events and actions that comprise the process of collaboration. Sirotnik and Goodlad (1988) agree when they suggest a need for further investigation of the process components of collaboration.

In the study the process components of collaboration were investigated. The purpose of the study was to describe and explain a school-university collaboration in an effort to better understand the nature of collaborative actions and events. The study detailed the initial phases of a collaborative endeavor between a small, private college (Alpha) and a small, independent elementary (N-8) school (Beta). The collaborative group became known as ABC-PE (*A*lpha *B*eta *C*ollaboration in *P*hysical *E*ducation), and worked together through three phases: 1) introduction to relevant research material; 2) exploratory pilot placement for students; and 3) full implementation of field-based site for teacher preparation program. Each phase lasted one school semester. The first phase began during the winter of 1987-1988.

Data were collected and filtered through an interpretive framework comprised of contextual factors believed to influence the collaboration. These are significant environmental features that were believed to have a discernable and important impact on the collaboration. They included, but were not limited to:

1. *Administrative Structures*--the institutional or group mechanisms that deal with personnel, rewards, recognition, or approval. It also pertains to the allocation of money, resources, and time to personnel.

2. *Administrative Procedures*--the actions taken by administrators. The administrators are solely responsible for setting up and carrying out these procedures.

3. *Organizational Structures*--the foundation and framework from which the collaboration works. These structures included group size, group skill level, time allocation, planning and purpose, delivery methods, evaluation procedures, scheduled activities and agenda, and stratification.

4. *Characteristics of Individual Participants*--characteristic traits derived from participant's statements and actions, such as, desire, commitment, motive, perseverance, persistence, energy, flexibility, mutual respect for other participants, trust and risk-taking, sharing, means of dealing with conflict, and recognition of mutual needs.

5. *Characteristics of Participating Groups*--the characteristics of the three groups (school, university, collaborative) derived from group statements or actions, such as, desire, commitment, motive, perseverance, persistence, energy, flexibility, mutual respect for other participants,

trust and risk-taking, sharing, means of dealing with conflict, and recognition of mutual needs.

6. *Roles*--the roles that individuals play within the collaboration or at their respective sites.

7. *Professional Relationships*--refer especially to those relationships that guide the direction of the collaboration.

This study was designed in a manner that allowed for the continual development and analysis of themes as the data were filtered through the interpretive framework. This type of concurrent analysis enabled an emphasis to be placed on themes as they arose from the context of the study. Thematic development helped link together important events, and in doing so, provided a better understanding of the collaboration. These themes were noted throughout the study and became the focus of observations and interviews as the direction of the study became clearer.

For purposes of clarification, it is important to understand the established criteria for thematic development. A theme is comprised of a cluster of characteristics important enough to be grouped together. The themes should be exclusive enough so that subtle differences can be discerned between them. The differences, both between and within the themes, are graded and incremental, not black and white. Themes should also be considered as general reflections of the characteristics, not precise definitions. Finally, all themes were viewed with respect to the cultural differences observed between the university site and the school site.

Ivory Tower and Grass Roots

The major theme that permeated the entire study involved the cultural differences between the study sites. These differences can best be characterized by the Ivory Tower and Grass Roots metaphors. In this specific case, the comparison between the Ivory Tower and the Grass Roots is based upon the differences in the two cultures (university and school) with respect to attitudes, values, beliefs, events, actions, practices, and mannerisms. The concept of Ivory Tower refers to those characteristic qualities of academic life in higher education that tend to set it apart from the daily rigors of teaching in schools. For example, in the earliest phase of the collaboration, one professor was on sabbatical from Alpha, and was able to carry out his responsibilities to the collaboration with the flexibility afforded by this leave. In contrast, sabbaticals were not a component of the life of a school teacher, so the school staff had to collaborate while they maintained a full teaching schedule. The concept of Grass Roots refers to those characteristics of schools and school teachers that often set them apart from higher education. For example, in the initial meetings, a major concern was voiced by the teachers as to how they would benefit from the collaboration. The teachers were looking for practical things, such as, college course recognition or listing activity on transcripts; whereas, the college professor assumed that school and program development would suffice as benefits for the teachers.

Many such differences can be found between the Ivory Tower and the Grass Roots. The remaining nine sub-themes illustrate some of the more pivotal cultural differences and their impact on the collaboration.

1. *The Value Placed on Research*--There were attitudinal differences with regard to the importance of research as a guide for teaching, as well as a different notion of what was important for physical education teachers to master. For example, despite constant suggestions to the teachers to initiate research projects, compile data for research, test new material for teacher education manuals, or organize articles to be published in research journals, the teachers were slow to respond. They were happiest and most eager to work with practical applications of translated research reports.

2. *Stratification*--There were differences in the attitudes, beliefs, and values of the Ivory Tower and Grass Roots that could be discerned in a subtle social and professional stratification. As an example prior to this collaboration, the university professor had served in a professorial capacity during three of the Beta faculty's undergraduate or graduate professional training programs. He had been their "teacher" and determined their success or failure in his class as evidenced by a final grade. Also to be considered are the different age groups serviced as clients by the Alpha and Beta faculties. The university has adults and young adults as students and on the graduate level, many of these adults are already school teachers. Conversely, school teachers spend the major portion of their day with young children as their primary clients. In a school setting, teachers necessarily assume the role of "authority figures." Although the Beta faculty assumed "student" roles at local universities with great ease, some discomfort was evident when they were placed in "student" roles at the Beta site.

3. *Motives and Intentions*--There were different motives and intentions for participation in the collaboration. And, although there were some common motives for participation, Alpha and Beta had prioritized these intentions differently.

As evidenced in written proposals and through interviews, Alpha's main objective was to improve their teacher education program, as well as to develop a trustworthy placement site for undergraduate and graduate field experiences. In addition, Alpha was able to test a new manual for field experiences. Through the prolonged exposure to a school site, the Alpha faculty believed they were increasing the professional credibility of their teacher education program. Finally, Alpha's involvement in the collaboration was seen as an avenue for professional development for the teacher educators and as a means for enhancing their individual professional backgrounds as they focused on improving Beta's physical education program.

At Beta the most important motive for participation was to generally "improve" the physical education program. An emphasis was also placed on having access to additional "coaches" and "substitutes," as well as an "available hiring pool of candidates that we have had a hand in training." Beta faculty also acknowledged that professional credibility and professional development were enhanced by the affiliation with Alpha. Finally, the teachers felt an obligation to improve teacher education programs and assumed their involvement as a professional responsibility.

4. *Reasons for Planning and Professional Rewards*--There were basic differences in the participants' planning strategies based upon the professional reward structures in place at either site. In light of the professional reward structures at the university site (the required published research necessary for tenure and promotion, and merit pay awards), the following plans were implemented: a) the completion and presentation of research at conferences; b) activity planning based upon theoretical frames of reference; c) documentation of all collaborative activities for eventual publication; d) the development and initiation of ABC-PE; e) the development of a research-based training manual used by the collaborative group; and f) the development and testing of a new manual to be used for teacher education field experiences. Contrasting examples of planning for the professional reward structures at the school site focused on the lack of emphasis placed on the conduct or completion of research and included: a) a no-tenure structure; b) renewable, yearly contracts based upon exemplary teaching and service to the school community; c) available loans for "valuable" faculty members in need of financial assistance; and d) available grants for "deserving" faculty members for academic financial assistance. The teachers therefore planned and acted accordingly, as illustrated by the following examples: a) accepting as their main responsibility the objective to "teach" and "to teach well," b) the administration permission to participate in the collaboration because they "...felt it would enhance the instructional strategies employed by the Beta teachers," c) the completion of expected "service activities," i.e., attending conferences, supervising teams or clubs after school hours, chaperoning school trips over vacations, attending school social functions, individualizing instruction and tutoring, and the construction of a new lower school playground. As a side note, the mode of instructional planning at Beta also changed over the course of the study from a focus on immediate needs, changing conditions, and/or prior actions to a more focused mode of planning based on the theoretical concepts shared in the collaborative group.

5. *Work Patterns--Available Time*--There were differences in the availability and appropriate use of time, especially with respect to doing research or other theoretical work. The university site offered sabbatical leaves, classes organized one or two days per week, and large blocks of time slated for scholarship and intellectual pursuit. The school site was organized around five or six classes each and every day, a lunch period involving student supervision, coaching in the afternoons, and occasional evenings scheduled for parent or school social functions.

6. *Work Patterns--Job Differences*--There were differences in the rigors of working at the university or school site. The work patterns at the university site included: one or two classes per day; morning or evening classes; different daily schedules; short calendar years with long vacation periods; availability of sabbaticals; required student counseling and academic advisement; mandatory office hours; university committee participation; and finally, the wise use of time to conduct, report and publish research. In contrast, at the school site, the work patterns included: the same daily start and finish times; the same scheduled classes; a faculty meeting which began each day; late afternoon coaching sessions; occasional evening school socials; in short, a "dailiness" that followed a full school year (with a minor changes at the start of each traditional sport season-- fall, winter, spring).

7. *Shared Time*--There was an opportunity in this collaborative process for the full school faculty, along with interested teacher educators, to

share the common experience and develop a common language that made communication and interaction patterns change over time.

8. *Time Frames--Planning for Students*--There was a significant contrast in the manner in which teacher educators and teachers think, which was due, in part, to the "tempo" and the demands of their different environments. The thinking and planning at each site reflected the pace, which in turn helped the participants to work effectively and efficiently within their own systems. For example, at the university, thinking and planning tended to span two to four year time blocks, as the faculty viewed the teacher preparation students along a developmental continuum. In comparison, the school teachers planned lessons within specific planned units. Occasionally planning would occur across an entire sport season (fall, winter, or spring).

9. *Time Frames--Benefits*--A further contrast in "tempo" at the sites was reflected in the participants' views of benefits. The university participants were more accepting of "long-term, delayed" benefits which mirrored their long-term thinking and planning. They also had a more complicated and intricate bureaucratic structure which would necessarily slow down any process. On the other hand, the school participants worked at a quicker planning pace and looked for benefits that were of a "quicker, short-term" nature.

Walls and Catapults

With all of the aforementioned cultural differences and the built-in problems that confronted the participants as they moved from "teaching" roles to those of "collaborators," varying amounts of conflict and tension materialized within the group. The means that arose for dealing with conflict and conflict resolution resembled "Walls" and "Catapults." The problems that arose became the "Walls" and the private resolutions were the "Catapults." The two groups were capable of erecting large and seemingly insurmountable "Walls" during the course of a day. These "Walls" might have precluded the further growth or realistic survival of the collaboration. However, time and time again the participants would continue to meet and move on to something new. The problems never really disappeared. They always seemed to loom off in the distance. But "something" clearly lifted the group over the "Wall" and allowed it to move forward.

This "something" was different in many cases, but there was consistency in the manner in which the resolution was reached. The problems were always resolved after the two groups separated for the day, never when they were together. It seemed that, in concert, the parties could not resolve a problem but after a meeting they would both make efforts to eliminate the problem and proceed with the collaborative effort. Both parties were more then willing to concede and compromise (sometimes accepting differences, sometimes ignoring differences, and sometimes adopting a different perspective), but not in public. Over the eighteen months of the study, the participants became increasingly sensitive to each others' professional realities as they became less "skeptical" and thereby able to "trust" each other more.

Speculations on the Future of Collaboration

At the suggestion of major national educational reform commissions, school-university collaboration is a highly valued direction for school improvement. With this in mind, many schools and universities are establishing professional working relationships. The chances of developing successful collaborations can be greatly enhanced if goals and motives are clearly defined and mutually agreed upon. Matches in motives between schools and universities that house schools of education are easier to imagine given the common interest in improving teachers and teaching.

In the specific area of physical education and physical education teacher education, a new thrust towards professionalizing the practice of teaching physical education is evident. With the recent threats of losing state mandates for compulsory physical education, it is becoming more urgent to improve the standards within the profession. The immediacy of the conditions locally should encourage individual physical education teachers, schools, school districts, and physical education teacher education programs from local universities to work together for the revitalization of the field and the continued growth of the quality programs that are already established. If this study is indicative of what happens in collaborative endeavors, collaborations in physical education and physical education teacher education should not be merely the "envisioned dreams" of the national commissions, but the true wave of the future with the potential to make real differences.

Final Recommendation

The findings from this study are similar to other reported collaborative efforts. Lieberman (1986), Maloy (1985), and DeBevoise (1986) all suggest sensitivity to the needs of other members of a collaboration and the necessity of mutual respect and mutual understanding of other cultural realities as pre-requisite qualities for collaborators. The themes reported in this paper should serve as an advance organizer for any, and all, potential collaborators. With prior knowledge of areas requiring additional sensitivity, school and university faculty can enter into collaborative arrangements with their eyes, ears and minds open, ready to work together, with accepting attitudes towards cultural differences as they plan and implement school and university reform projects with a greater potential for success on all levels.

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The Bohemia Project: Tapping the Collaborative Potential

Kim C. Graber, Paul G. Schempp & Bruce Kelsh

In 1981, Zeichner and Tabachnick addressed an important issue when they questioned the impact of teacher education on public school teachers. In the decade which has followed, a number of scholars have attempted to answer why teacher education appears to have a relatively weak influence on the next generation of teachers. Some scholars suggest that it is difficult for teacher educators to permanently reshape beliefs about teaching which children develop as students in the public schools (Hutchison, 1990; Lortie, 1975; Schempp, 1989). Others suggest that the use of studentship and impression management strategies serve as masks which allow teacher education students to be perceived as acquiring the orientation of the training program when, in fact, the perspectives which students bring forward from pretraining remain relatively unchanged (Graber, in press; Shipman, 1967a, 1967b).

A number of alternatives exist which might explain why teacher education students do not always acquire skills and professional beliefs of the teacher education program. When speaking with experienced teachers and teacher education students, it becomes apparent that they have a ready explanation for why it is difficult for teacher education to permanently redefine the ways in which teachers teach. Simply stated, it is commonly believed that teacher education students do not receive adequate hands on training experience in the schools. In particular, it is thought the novices need to be closely monitored, evaluated, and provided with feedback which clearly supports the intentions of the training program (Dodds, 1989). Without this experience, it is more by chance than by any deliberate attempt by the teacher education faculty that some students graduate and continue to maintain the professional orientation they acquired at the university.

Based on suggestions generated by recent research, some teacher education programs in North America are being reconceptualized. Teachers are now seen as partners in the development of their future colleagues. Traditionally, experienced teachers have primarily served as cooperating teachers, with little opportunity available for significant interaction within, or influence upon, the teacher education program. More recently, however, the role of experienced teachers has been enlarged and they are being asked to serve as consultants and role-models within preservice programs. The Holmes Group, for example, has been a staunch advocate for the development of partnerships between personnel at the university and personnel in the schools.

The purpose of this paper is to illustrate the potential of collaboration by describing one program at the University of Oregon. We offer this program only to illustrate the type of collaboration that is possible in the public schools, and make no claim that it is better than similar programs at other institutions. We can report, however, on its impact for we have been active participants since the inception of the program.

The Bohemia Experience

The teacher education faculty at the University of Oregon made a firm commitment to develop an undergraduate teacher education program which was not limited to the confines of a university classroom. Based on the research literature which describes the potential of collaboration, and based on the belief that teacher education students would take more responsibility for their own learning if they were provided with experiences similar to those of "real" teachers, we designed a teacher education program which provided students with an opportunity to interact with teachers, principals, and children in the public schools.

The first step in the design was to make connections with public school teachers who would be willing to serve as role models in three primary functions. First, they would allow our students to observe their classes. Second, they would allow our students to teach their classes. Third, they agreed to provide our students with suggestions and feedback regarding daily lessons, teaching methods, and interactions with children. While this start-up version of the program was well received in the first year, an evaluation did reveal some troublesome problems which demanded attention.

The most pressing problems were created by the number of hours necessary to spend at each school site and by the number of university students involved. Not only were we bringing physical education majors to the schools for observations and teaching experiences, but state law required that we also include preservice classroom teachers taking the mandatory course in physical education. Preservice students had greater opportunity to instruct than did the trained physical education specialist. We concluded that additional teaching sites were needed.

At this point, we received a phone call from Bruce Kelsh, a recently hired principal at Bohemia Elementary School in Cottage Grove, Oregon. Bruce was concerned because his students were instructed in physical education by classroom teachers. Despite their limited knowledge of fitness, sports, games, and the curriculum of physical education, his teachers were required by Oregon state law to teach this unique subject matter. Bohemia Elementary had just acquired a federal grant for program development, and the classroom teachers determined that a priority in using these funds should include inservice training in physical education. This resulted in the development of a two-day in-service workshop. At the end of the workshop, it became apparent that Bohemia Elementary School would be the ideal location for a practicum experience. Not only would children benefit by receiving the expertise of our university students, but our majors would benefit by receiving supervised practical teaching experiences.

Bohemia Elementary School is nestled in the foothills of the Cascade Mountains in Cottage Grove. Bohemia serves as one of several elementary schools in the area. Cottage Grove is primarily a rural logging community with limited funding available for a physical education curriculum. The school boasts a relatively new gymnasium, activity room, and two large closets which house a wide variety of equipment. The condition and amount of equipment is far better than many schools who employ a physical education specialist. This school of 535 students has become a home to those University of Oregon students who take physical education curriculum classes.

The collaborative experience at Bohemia Elementary School has provided many types of learning activities for all those involved in the development and implementation of the curriculum. It is the combined efforts of the principal, classroom teachers, university personnel, and undergraduate teacher education students who have made this collaborative endeavor a success. Without the cooperation of any one of these individuals or groups, this experience would not be possible. This article will address the following aspects of the Bohemia experience: 1) preparation for the experience; 2) university student involvement; 3) the role of university faculty; 4) teacher involvement; and 5) the children who attended Bohemia.

Preparation for the Experience

Several terms prior to participating in the practicum, students are required to complete an elementary curriculum class in which they learn to design and implement appropriate physical education activities for children. Students learn how to develop a logical progression of activities when teaching dance, gymnastics, movement education, educational games, and organized sports. During the same term in which they participate at Bohemia, the students enroll in both an advanced elementary curriculum class and a class in which they learn how to critically analyze their own teaching. In the advanced curriculum class students plan a yearly curriculum, learn to write and implement behavioral objectives, write lesson plans, and develop lesson evaluations. In the teaching analysis course, students are filmed during lab experiences and then analyze their tapes during the lecture portion of the class. They view their own tapes and those of their peers so that they may learn from both the effective and ineffective teaching strategies which occur in each practice lesson.

University Student Involvement

Once the actual practicum teaching experience begins, the university students are assigned to a particular group of children. Whenever possible, provisions are made so that the same group of children are instructed by the same university student for the duration of the practicum experience. On the average, the university students teach four times per week for thirty minutes. They might teach a kindergarten and third grade class on Wednesday and two fifth grade classes on Friday.

As part of the experience, students are required to complete daily lesson plans. If students appear at Bohemia without a plan, they are not allowed to teach. Immediately after teaching, students are required to write lesson evaluations which must address prespecified standards such as the type of student learning which did or did not take place during the lesson. In addition, students are required to implement a variety of curriculum activities which are concurrently addressed during the lecture portion of the class. For example, if educational gymnastics is the focus of the week, students plan an educational gymnastics lesson. As the university students gain experience and become more comfortable in the teaching role, they also are asked to incorporate a variety of teaching styles and strategies into their lessons.

The collaborative relationship with Bohemia Elementary School has provided an opportunity for the university students to implement theory within a structured environment which includes supervision, feedback, and ongoing discussion. When particular teaching methods are unsuccessful, students have the opportunity to reflect, redesign, and reimplement these methods in ways that may later prove to be successful. Without such a practicum, techniques of instruction which did not work well on the first try might have been permanently abandoned by new teachers because they lacked knowledge of how to revise and adjust their methods.

The Role of University Faculty

It is the role of the faculty members to organize and coordinate the practicum experience with the principal and teachers at Bohemia Elementary, determining what activities will be most appropriate for the students. During the teaching experience the faculty member observes the university students, taking in-depth notes about each student, and then facilitating a discussion about the experience during the lecture portion of class. The opportunity to observe students as they teach enables the faculty member to gauge the success and relevance of their lecture material and coursework.

Teacher Involvement

While the classroom teachers do not assist during the teaching portion of the class, it is not unusual for them to provide feedback regarding particular teaching methods relative to individual students. It also is not unusual to witness these teachers roving about the gymnasium with clipboards, taking notes on the activities which are being provided. Frequently these teachers interact with the university faculty member, asking specific questions about activities or asking for clarification on how to design particular experiences. Instead of using this time for a break from the students, most teachers use the time as an opportunity to learn new curriculum ideas, usually doing so in order to follow up later in the week on activities which the university students have introduced. The experience often results in a stronger commitment to physical education as a subject matter.

The Children Who Attend Bohemia

Not only is the practicum experience valuable for the university students and Bohemia teachers, the practicum experience ensures that the children at Bohemia will be provided with quality physical education classes and specialized instruction that previously had been unavailable. In planning particular lessons, the university students try to be sensitive to the needs of the children, the school and the community. For example, during spring term the Bohemia children compete against other schools in a track and field meet. Several weeks prior to this experience, the university students instruct the Bohemia children in the skills necessary for such a competition.

Tapping the Collaborative Potential

The program at Bohemia currently is in its third year. All parties have benefitted from the program and view it with a sense of pride, accomplishment, and a high degree of shared ownership. To date, the results of the practicum experience are predominantly positive. We would, however, be doing a disservice if we implied that our program typifies the ideal collaborative model. While the program has many positive virtues, it is not perfect. Our belief is that collaboration, in the true sense, includes an equal commitment by all involved parties to produce a common, agreed-upon goal. While all parties in our model have goals which are being met, they sometimes are the result of individual agendas.

Based on the circumstances under which most universities and schools operate, true collaboration may not be possible within the program we have established. Perhaps then, we should change the title of this article to: "Teacher Education in North America: Tapping the Cooperative Potential." The title change might be less misleading, while still implying a largely positive experience. In a cooperative venture, the school retains its primary goal of educating children while the university maintains it goal of educating teachers.

We can work harder, however, to develop a more genuine collaborative model. For example, while the classroom teachers are not trained physical education specialists they can still contribute to the curriculum by sharing their ideas regarding lesson content, teaching methodology, and class organization. The university students and faculty can contribute by spending greater time instructing classroom teachers on how to follow-up on lessons which are taught during the practicum. The potential for collaboration would be enhanced by a movement away from the present rather rigidly defined roles which hold the two groups as somewhat distinct.

Currently, our model involves some collaboration, some cooperation, and some shared commitment to common goals. The model has provided leeway, however, for individuals to maintain goals for the partnership which may not be shared by all other participants. Allowing this to happen has been comfortable and has resulted in a positive experience. As the program develops, a greater commitment to a true collaborative venture may be possible. At Bohemia, many individuals are contributing to the preparation of the next generation of teachers and to the development of a physical education curriculum for children. The degree to which both of these goals are being realized indicates that the school and the university are beginning to move toward a relationship which taps the true collaborative potential.

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Section 3. Meeting the Challenges: Insights from Institutional Perspectives

The Coexistence of Research and Program Development in Collaborative Settings

William G. Anderson, Jack McCleery, Susan Schwager, Susan Petersen, Mary Lou Veal and Sarah Doolittle

Introduction

The purpose of this series of papers is to describe the various types of collaborations we (the authors) are involved in, and then, based on our own experiences, examine critical features of the collaborative process -- giving special attention to the coexistence of research and program development. We will start by examining the Physical Education Program Development Center -- a collaboration which all of us have worked on at one time or another -- and then proceed to discuss other collaborations that represent the more recent experiences of the individual authors.

Before we start we want to acknowledge that there is an enormous variety of types of collaborations. We intend to discuss only a few types. Many other types appear elsewhere in these proceedings.

Nor do we intend to suggest that a particular collaborative model is superior to others. If there is one thing we have learned from our years of work in this area, it is that a collaboration needs to be distinctively shaped to suit the people and the conditions involved -- i.e., it needs to be context specific. There is no magic formula that fits all settings.

The Center
(William Anderson)

The Physical Education Program Development Center officially began operation 11 years ago. It is a collaboration between seven school districts and The Department of Movement Sciences and Education at Teachers College, Columbia University (see Figure A).

The Center's offices and meeting rooms have been located in the Tarrytown School District. Financial support for the Center comes from Teachers College stipends to graduate students and released time for the participating faculty member, and from annual dues paid by each school district.

Participants in the Center include the 47 physical education teachers in the school districts, the director of physical education for each district, one to three doctoral students and me. The Center is run by an Executive Council made up of the Directors of Physical Education from each school district and two Teachers College representatives.

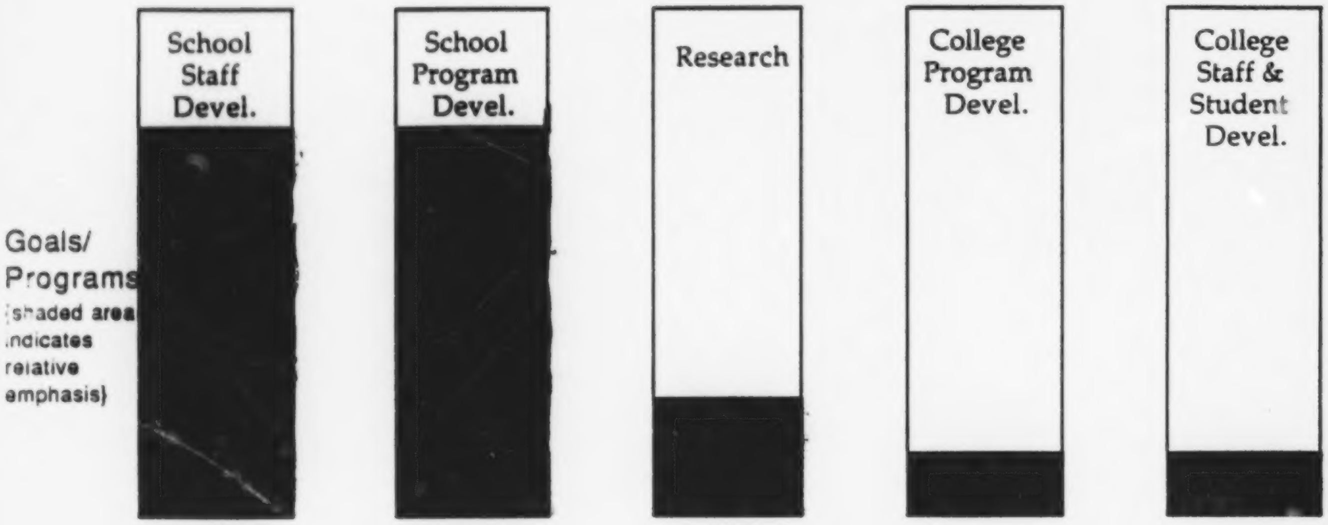
The primary goal of the Center is to facilitate program development and staff development in the participating school districts. Our secondary goals are to conduct research and to provide for program and staff development at the college. So we have made a conscious decision to emphasize school program and staff development, and to give lower priority to research. The various types of program development projects we have carried out over the years are listed on Table 1. Actually the total number of identifiable projects is in the hundreds. These projects have been coordinated through workshops for teachers and administrators (10 to 20 per year); through countless visitations to schools; and through the distribution of program materials to participants.

On the other hand we have conducted only four major research studies at the Center during these same 11 years. Three of those studies examined the process of program development -- i.e., an ongoing program development project was described and evaluated by the researcher. Thus in a very real sense, much of our research has been an appendage to our program development. A little later on Susan Schwager will describe one of those studies which illustrates how the collaborative process, as structured within the Center, has a profound effect on the kind of research that is possible.

So, here is a Center that has no intention of balancing program development and research. It is committed to program development and determined not to let research in any way impede program development efforts. Why did we create such a one-sided operation? There are a number of reasons -- let me mention two of them. 1) We believed that doing program development was more important than doing research. (I realize that this statement will be viewed as heresy by many readers.) 2) We had good reason to believe that if we allowed research to have priority, the teachers would resent being used as guinea pigs and might abandon the Center.

Remember, these are merely our beliefs and our approach. We are not suggesting that others should adopt these beliefs or utilize this approach. As mentioned earlier, a collaboration needs to be shaped to suit the people involved. We shaped the Center to suit ourselves.

Physical Education Program Development Center



Collaborative Structure

Executive Council
Meetings
Workshops

Participating Institutions

School(s)	College(s)
-Teachers representing 32 schools in 7 districts -7 district Physical Education Administrators	1 faculty, 1 graduate assistant from Teachers College, Columbia Univ.

Support

Teachers College - released time + budget allocation
District - dues paid to Center through budget allocation

Figure A

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Table 1
Physical Education Program Development Center
(W. G. Anderson)

Overview of Center Programs (1980-90)

The following list contains a *sample* of the *types* of projects carried on over ten years. In most cases, each listed activity occurred on multiple occasions in various forms -- i.e., in different schools, in different school districts, and in successive years.

Fitness Programming and Projects (primarily middle and upper elementary schools)

Fitness testing: pre, mid, and post-tests; diagnostic use; maintain records; motivational awards for achievement/ improvement; communicate results to parents; Health-Related Fitness; Physical Best.

Regular program features: fitness warm-ups; combined sports/fitness circuits; special fitness units (e.g., weight training, rope jumping, jogging). Study fitness concepts; modify sports activities to increase aerobic component; maximize pupil participation; special classes for deficiencies; exercise homework; live class demonstration; Physical Best.

Special Events and Programs (examples): jump rope for heart; run for your life; fitness Fridays; swim to Bermuda; 10-20 mile running clubs; fitness contests (various types); run to Albany; fitness trail/outdoor course; videotape for local cable TV publicity, workshop use and state convention presentation.

Elective Programming and Projects (high school)

Introduced, revised or revived elective units (emphasis on lifetime activities): tennis, racketball, orienteering, concepts in exercise and health, frisbee, golf, aerobics, new games, handball, lacrosse, archery, square dancing, paddleball, Swedish gymnastics, circuit training, juggling, floor hockey, indoor soccer, fencing; advanced classes in tennis, badminton, golf, basketball, etc.

Improved Program Management: improved scheduling to allow greater choice by students; counseling students on choices; use of outside facilities; more selective staff assignments; more efficient use of school facilities; assigning staff responsibilities for program areas.

Competency-Based Program Segments (elementary school)

Used competency-based framework to develop instructional units. Framework emphasized establishing goals/objectives, selecting appropriate activities, formulating written plans, assessing pupil achievement, using assessment data to assist in design of subsequent units. The focus of the segments ranged considerably. A *few* examples include: throw for accuracy, rope jumping, basketball skills, nutrition concepts, balance skills, upper body strength, swimming skills, and gymnastic routines.

Curriculum Writing and Revision Project (K-12)

General plan was to: update the written document, make revisions as needed, coordinate the documents across grade levels, and implement the curriculum by using it to guide planning and teaching. Each district designed projects that were suitable for their own needs. All districts were urged to produce the documents on a word processor so that changes could easily be made in the future. In Tarrytown, the completed K-12 curriculum was presented to the school board for approval.

Most workshops focused on curriculum writing and allowing a group from each district to work on its curriculum with Center staff members serving as resource persons. General discussions involving all participants focused on topics of mutual interest, e.g., pupil evaluation, fitness, program organization, safety.

Two workshops were devoted to curriculum improvement and utilization. One workshop featured a presentation on implementing the recent NYS syllabus and another featured the need to incorporate safety guidelines into the written curriculum.

Record Keeping and Assessment (all levels)

As a separate project, all districts re-examine their procedures for assessment, record keeping and grading. Emphasis is placed on: clarifying objectives; knowledge, skill and fitness testing; systematic performance rating; and maintenance of permanent records.

Class and Behavior Management Practices (primarily elementary and middle school)

These practices were normally integral parts or outgrowths of more formal projects. They included: establishing behavioral goals (e.g., sportsmanship, cooperation); posting and enforcing rules; teaching self-management skills; using contingency reward systems; organizing classes to increase on-task time; optimizing practice conditions; providing maximal participation; using task cards/posters and other written materials.

Adaptive Programs (all levels)

Programs varied by district. Some typical components included: screening and diagnostic testing; individualized programming; modification of activities; new approaches to mainstreaming; individualized instruction; use of BOCES curriculum guide; writing IEPs; fitness programming in adaptive p.e.; interscholastic competition for handicapped; cross-district sharing of information and interschool visits.

Administrative arrangements: coordination with school administrators; liaison with C.0.H., special educators and parents; specialized training of staff; updating on current state laws and regulations.

Project Adventure

Presentations at workshops and special participatory clinic including games, elementary activities, indoor climbing.

Movement Education and Cooperative Games (elementary school)

Several teachers revised their programs to provide more movement education activities and cooperative games -- especially for the lower elementary grades. Emphasis on: exploration, developmental activities, and non-competitive settings.

Special Events and Intramurals (all levels)

An enormous variety of special events were held to highlight program features and enhance motivation. A few of many possible examples are: gymnastics night; parent-child volleyball night; special track meets (interschool); all-school color war (sports and academics); two-on-two basketball tournament; new games night; obstacle course contest.

Intramurals were revived and revised in several secondary schools. Scheduled before and after school, and during recess they focused on a variety of activities -- most commonly: volleyball, basketball, floor hockey, basketball, soccer, badminton.

Safety and Liability (all levels)

The Center has dealt with safety considerations in connection with several projects over the years. For example, provisions for student safety were discussed in relation to examining class management techniques, and when planning fitness programs. Recently, the curriculum writing projects have included guidelines for safety management and instruction.

The Executive Council decided to give special attention to safety by holding a special evening program on the topic, participating in one or more directors' workshops, and implementing additional safety procedures as necessary in their programs. This has resulted in the use of practices such as: having the staff view the videotape "Playing It Safe," composing a safety checklist for teachers, posting safety procedures, and arranging for regular safety inspections.

Madeline Hunter (all levels)

A special workshop series was developed to encourage physical education teachers to use these techniques effectively. The first focused on organizing efficient lessons, the second on motivation and practice, and the third was a special workshop for one particular district.

Teachers analyzed units they were currently teaching and planned revisions for those lessons based on the Madeline Hunter techniques.

Center Evaluation Study

Susan Schwager and Sarah Doolittle (former doctoral students/ assistant directors of the Center) conducted an evaluative study of Center programs in 1987. The purpose of the study was to survey the teachers' and directors' reactions to Center activities. The information gathered was used to formulate plans for the future.

Public Relations/Public Information

Efforts carried on at the district level (by directors) and at the school level (by teachers) include: letters explaining program features to parents; demonstration nights; presentations at parents' night; presentations to Boards of Education; articles on programs in school/district/town newspapers; presentations at faculty meetings; special sports participation programs for parents and non-physical education faculty; videotapes for local cable TV stations.

Center staff communications/reports are sent regularly to superintendents, principals, and when appropriate to school board members. Letters of recognition are also sent for an individual director/teacher who makes special presentations at workshops. Center staff has also been helpful in arranging for particularly good workshop presentations to be given at state and local conventions.

At this point it is appropriate to ask: How well has the Center worked? Has it accomplished its goals? Has it met the needs of participants including teachers, administrators, and researchers)? And how have the collaborative procedures influenced the outcomes?

Jack McCleery's paper addresses these questions from the standpoint of the teachers and administrators in the schools.

The School Administrator's Perspective
(Jack McCleery)

The purpose of this paper is to explain why the Tarrytown Public School system would participate in a collaboration (The Physical Education Program Development Center) with a world famous university. In doing so, I will discuss three important features of this venture:

1. How and why the relationship started and continues to be successful.
2. The value of this relationship to the public school districts.
3. How the school personnel view the research component.

How and Why the Relationship Started

The need for program development in Tarrytown became obvious some 12 years ago as the physical education staff aged and teacher "burn out" became evident. We needed to find a way to stimulate the staff, some of whom had been in place for as many as 20 years.

We began by asking the staff to do a thorough self-evaluation. This allowed us to start with their views on the status of the program and on possible curriculum changes. To be successful in motivating them we found the following conditions must be present: 1) A non-threatening atmosphere -- their comfort level had to be maintained. Anyone who had come forward with a project or research topic that gave any indication of evaluating the teachers or their programs would have been rejected. 2) The projects had to be self-motivating. The staff had to choose areas of the curriculum they wanted to improve. With these factors in mind and the self-evaluations in hand, curriculum areas were targeted by the Center as the focus for workshops. The workshops gave the teachers opportunities to share ideas and to plan projects for their schools (see Table 1).

Between workshops, follow-up observations were conducted in schools by the Center's staff and directors to offer help with projects and to show interest in the teachers' work. The expectations of reporting on their projects at the next workshop motivated the teachers to do their very best job.

The workshops presented by the Center were geared to meet the expressed needs of the teachers. Topics were not forced upon them. In fact, if they did not view a particular project as a valuable experience, the teachers were able to change or discontinue projects without a sense of failure. As a consequence, the workshops generated a project for each teacher to incorporate into his or her own instruction.

Finally, the fact that Columbia was willing to locate the Center in the school district meant a great deal. Not having to travel to the university was important. The staff realized this was an opportunity which had not been available before.

The Values of this Joint Venture from the Schools' Point of View

The curriculum in the district has improved. We have a broader based, more innovative curriculum.

Because of the involvement with Columbia and the workshops that are being run, the school administration's respect for the physical education program has increased. We are the only discipline that offers ongoing workshops and follow-up throughout the year (for the past ten years).

In every report to the board, parents and community, the value of the Center's work has become a public relations tool. The year-end reports by the Center are distributed to the principals, superintendent and Board of Education as a matter of course. These reports highlight all the activities of the Center and name each teacher who is involved.

The self-esteem of the teachers has risen with the feeling of belonging to the Center and being associated with Columbia University.

With the other districts involved, we are constantly challenged to improve. The sharing with other districts, has produced a very positive atmosphere and generated some great ideas.

Each and every one of the projects have shown positive results. Over ten years, some of the enthusiasm has worn off, but new projects seem to rekindle the flames of professional growth.

The Research Component

The research part of this collaboration came about well after the projects had begun.

The relationship established between the researchers and the teachers was one of trust and sharing. The teachers had come to know the researchers as program developers who had the best interest of their programs at heart. For the most part, they did not feel they were being used as guinea pigs but did feel that the research fit the natural progression of the project.

The key was that the research was inconspicuous and didn't appear to take time away from their program. Since the help they had received from the Center was so valuable, they were willing to share with those who made it possible.

Teachers who had previously not allowed outside observers into their classes, became willing to cooperate because of the respect they had developed for the researcher.

As research began to be published and a more thorough understanding of its results became evident, the teachers were more willing to become a part of the research component.

Even with this cooperation however, there is a fine line between the teachers finding value in the research and being annoyed because of the infringement on their time. As Susan Schwager will report, from her perspective as a researcher and program developer, there were probably some occasions when that line was crossed.

The Researcher's Perspective
(Susan Schwager)

Conducting Research at the Center

My contribution to this presentation will be to discuss the work of the Center from a researcher's point of view. Specifically, the focus will be research *on* collaboration between school personnel (teachers, administrators) and college teacher education specialists. The early work of the Center, and more recent work in which I am involved at Montclair State College, both reflect school/university collaborative program and staff development. My dual role as a program/staff developer and as a researcher in both settings has provided me with some insights into how these two roles can function together, and especially the advantages and constraints of conducting research in these settings.

The purpose of the research conducted at the Center has been to describe, document and assess selected program and staff development activities. In particular, the intent of this research has been threefold:

- to help answer the question raised earlier by Bill Anderson: "How well does the Center work? Or, how well does long term collaboration for the purpose of program/staff development work?
- to provide the participants in the collaboration (Center staff, directors and participating teachers) with information that can help shape future activities.
- to inform others with similar program/staff development interests of our experiences.

The initial project conducted at the Center (the Competency Based Physical Education Project) aimed at involving teachers in ongoing program development activities in ways that the literature at that time suggested were most effective (i.e., providing for ownership, collegiality, practicality). In 1981-82, I also conducted a descriptive study of this project. The early models that informed our work were from Goodlad and his League of Cooperating Schools (Goodlad, 1975), and the Interactive Research and Development projects initiated at the Far West Lab (see Griffin, 1978; Huling et al., 1981; Lieberman, 1981). In 1981-82, I conducted a descriptive study of this project. It involved elementary physical education specialists, and focused on improving existing programs through the use of competency based education. Because the priorities of the Center favor program and staff development over research, and the Center staff is small, I was an active participant in the project concurrent with my efforts to study it. I found fulfilling the two roles of program/ staff developer and researcher at the same time to be very difficult. In addition, having to accommodate the primacy of the program development and the regard for research at the Center as expendable, was somewhat unnerving. As I conducted my research, I remained aware that if the participating teachers tired of my incessant questioning, and persistent presence in their classes, I would be told to discontinue my research. Despite the tenuous nature of the research, the initial study conducted at the Center did survive the duration of the project (Schwager, 1983). This seemed to indicate that the study had been conducted in a manner that did not detract from the program development efforts, and did not leave the teachers with a feeling of being "used" to further someone's research interests.

However, an interview study conducted at the Center by Sarah Doolittle and myself in 1987 revealed that some teachers who had participated in a variety of Center projects during the first seven years, did object to their participation in the concurrent research (Schwager & Doolittle, 1988). When asked if there were activities the Center should discontinue, some teachers responded that doing things for someone else's doctoral research was not particularly helpful to them. The teachers who participated in the initial project and the related research seemed to find the collaborative activities so novel that they were not put off by the presence of the researcher. However, since the population of the Center is small and has remained relatively stable over time, some teachers who participated in a number of studies in succession, became more resentful of the extra effort required of them to contribute to the research in addition to conducting their own program development activities. The teachers particularly objected to requests from the Center staff for them to write. They have been especially reluctant to contribute samples of written work (i.e. lesson/unit plans, logs) for scrutiny. Interviews revealed this reluctance reflected the teachers' objections to being given what they perceived to be extra work with no apparent benefit. Since the research on collaboration at the Center has had a naturalistic quality, we (the researchers) have sought to gather a variety of written documents from the teachers. In addition to collecting field notes from interviews and observations, the written documents have been important for purposes of comparison and as a means of validating our findings.

What is noteworthy here is the difference of opinion between teachers and researchers towards the importance of producing written documents that describe the program development activities. The teachers' reluctance to write for the projects and for the research should serve to caution those who seek to work with teachers. Be careful about assigning work to teachers that they perceive as extra, and for which they see no direct benefit.

A Collaborative Project on Critical Thinking

I would like to describe a collaborative project begun in 1988 and currently underway at Montclair State and how my involvement in this project has been informed by my experiences at the Center. The purpose of the project is to improve existing programs in several school districts and at the college by infusing critical thinking into the curriculum (see Figure B). The project offers a couple of similarities as well as several contrasts to the work at the Center.

Similarities: 1) The project employs ongoing program and staff development activities that are dependent on collaboration between several school districts and the college. 2) Support in terms of money and personnel come jointly from the school districts and the college.

Differences: 1) The project involves school teachers and college faculty from a variety of disciplines. Physical education specialists comprise only a small proportion of the total group of participants. 2) The primary source of funding at the college came initially from a state grant, and the college is now faced with finding ways to support project activities through its own budget. 3) The project includes an emphasis on infusing critical thinking throughout the college curriculum in addition to the efforts to encourage teaching for critical thinking in the 14 participating school districts. 4) There is a conscious effort on the part of the project directors to promote opportunities for faculty exchange between the college and the schools. Workshops and seminars on teaching for critical thinking within the different disciplines are conducted both at the college and in the schools. Leadership responsibilities for these activities have been shared by school and college faculty. 5) The project at Montclair has a specific focus; critical thinking, and a particular mission; to encourage the use of critical thinking by teachers of the schools and the college. Critical thinking has been defined for this project as "Reasonable, reflective thinking that is sensitive to context, reliant on criteria, and self correcting" (Michelli et al., 1990). All participating teachers are expected to work on improving their teaching in ways that promote critical thinking on the part of their students. In other words, they are being asked to adopt someone else's agenda. This differs considerably from the work of the Center, in which teachers are free to choose what program areas to target for improvement, and what kinds of changes will be made. As I pursue my current work at Montclair, I am especially interested in seeing how the specific focus on critical thinking will affect the teacher's involvement in, and reactions to the project.

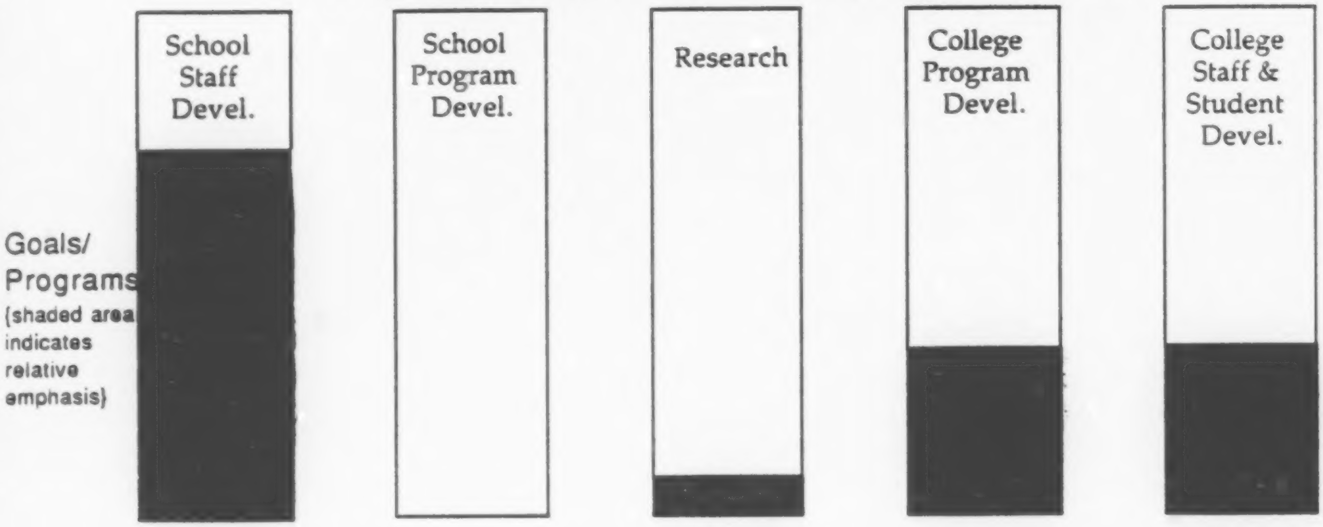
My experiences at the Center have convinced me that university/school collaboration can coexist with research *on* collaboration if attention is given to the following conditions:

Mutual Benefit. The participants and the research must all realize benefits from the program and staff development activities. Benefits to the researcher include: 1) having the opportunity to study this change process; 2) increasing our understanding of how school programs and teachers change and how university/school collaboration can contribute to these processes; 3) having the opportunity to publish the findings. Benefits to the teachers and administrators from the participating schools include 1) having the opportunity to improve their programs and practices; 2) making use of the experience and expertise of their colleagues from the university; 3) enjoying the favorable publicity that results from successful program changes.

Constant Vigilance. The researcher must remain vigilant in two respects. First, he/she must maintain an awareness of the reactions of the participating teachers to the data collection techniques, and sensitivity to the participants' feelings about frequent interviews, observations, and requests for written documents. Second, the researcher must remain aware of the constant threat that his/her bias as a participant observer will influence the data collection and subsequent analysis.

Although I believe program/staff development can coexist with research in collaborative settings if issues related to mutual benefit and researcher bias

Collaboration for Critical Thinking
The Montclair State College Model



Collaborative Structure

Executive Committee Meetings
Workshops
Training for Cooperating Teachers
Teacher Education Field Experiences

Participating Institutions

School(s)	College(s)
Teachers representing 14 districts School and district administrators	Montclair State -faculty and administrators

Support

Initial state funded grant
subsequent college budget allocation
Funds from districts for teachers attending workshops

Figure B

are addressed, it is, at best, a difficult relationship to sustain.

Susan Petersen will address some of these difficulties in reporting from "a different research perspective."

A Different Research Perspective
(Susan Petersen)

A Decision Not to do Research at the Center

Perhaps this segment would be more appropriate if it was titled, "The Lack of Coexistence Between Research and Program Development in Collaborative Settings." We all represent various perspectives along the continuum of coexistence but my perspective is at one of the extremes; for me, there was virtually no merging of research and program development.

When I joined the Center staff four years ago the teachers had just completed the major part of a three-year curriculum writing project which was concurrently the topic of a descriptive dissertation. Prior to that, they had completed three large projects in fitness, assessment and competency based programming, which were also topics of descriptive dissertations. As previously described, the completion of these projects depended on teachers who worked on and implemented them and who were then willing to give observation and interview time to doctoral students. While there were always other workshops interspersed with the projects, these topics consumed the bulk of workshop time.

From my earliest visits to Center schools I learned that some teachers felt that these projects were getting to be very time-consuming. Sometimes they thought it was something they were doing more for the benefit of others -- the Directors or the Center or the researcher. I got subtle, and sometimes not so subtle, messages that told me it was essentially a core of people in each district who participated in these projects and they were getting tired of the extra time and work associated with the project and the subsequent research. (The essence of these opinions corresponded with some of the findings of the interview study referred to earlier by Sue.) So despite the fact that the idea for the projects (usually) came from teachers and/or directors, had a direct effect on the teachers and the programs, and that the research was only incidental to it, the teachers were still feeling overburdened. Whether or not these feelings were justified is certainly open to question. Nevertheless, there was a clear indication that undertaking any project that would require substantial extra work on the part of these teachers would meet with considerable resistance.

From my own research perspective, Bill made it clear even before I started work at the Center that my doing a dissertation there was only a possibility. As in the past, the decision would have to be based on the condition that program development, not research, was our purpose and any research should be linked to a project directly benefitting programs. A related issue was what type of dissertation *I* wanted to do. It could be that the Center was not the best arena for my interest or sample. Sue discussed earlier that research at the Center is limited by the interest and willingness of the participants. Even if the Center chose to get involved in a project -- that is, if teacher and Director interest pushed us in a particular direction -- it might not be the same direction I was interested in pursuing. As Bill mentioned in the introduction, "the collaborative process, as structured within the Center, has a profound effect on the kind of research that is possible." Bill also made it clear, and I had heard from others, that you live with a dissertation for many, many hours and days and months and you should, therefore, love your topic and feel strongly about it. Thus, from my personal perspective, this was not something to be pursued half-heartedly by me simply because others were interested in it.

For a time, it looked as though the Center was considering another major fitness project. We conducted several workshops, Physical Best was being released, and we were on a crest of real interest. But in my talks with teachers, I realized that there was not a true need for a formal project although they were still eager for more information. At the same time, I read literature on fitness for children and considered the possibility of a dissertation in the area, whether it included a full-blown project or simply working with a few teachers. However, I, too, was equivocal; I was moderately interested in fitness although not overwhelmingly so. But the possibility of combining my work at the Center with my dissertation loomed as a great temptation; it would have been very convenient and efficient. This, then, seemed to be a critical point in time when we could have gone in either direction. However, since we sensed ambiguity from the teachers we chose to listen to them and not do a formal project or pursue them for research. We do continue to make fitness an important part of Center workshops each year and have encouraged and monitored informal follow-ups rather than a formal project.

Using Other Field Sites for Research

For my part, I decided to pursue a topic more relevant to my interests, even if it did not involve the Center. The study I chose to do was a multicase study of instructional sequencing in elementary school physical education. I decided to use a "purposeful sample," one in which I chose teachers to study who exhibited thoughtful sequencing patterns within a class, within a unit and from grade level to grade level. One of the advantages of not using Center teachers exclusively was that I had the freedom to choose subjects with certain characteristics; for example, all the subjects had recently written curriculums, and generally used written unit and lesson plans. I ultimately looked at four wonderful teachers from diverse populations. For a variety of reasons, only two of the Center teachers fit the criteria for my "purposeful sample" and I did study one of them. But the choice was based on his unique setting, his qualities as a teacher, and on a professional friendship. The study was entirely naturalistic and involved no additional work on his part. My work at the Center certainly allowed me easy entree to the site, put me in touch with him in the first place, and afforded me prior knowledge of his teaching.

A Personal Comment on Coexistence

As I consider some of the issues raised here as well as the history of my own involvement in this collaboration, I cannot help but think about the day 10-12 years ago I read the first article ever published about the Center; it appeared in JOPERD. At the time I was a teacher and I remember feeling that it was a terrific idea, exactly what universities should be doing and just what teachers, myself included, needed. I longed for an association like that to renew me as a teacher. My point is that I understand how valuable an association like this can be. I still have the same sense of conviction about the importance of the Center and feel very fortunate to have been a part of it. It has left a mark on me in the form of a commitment to quality in-service work. I believe that when that work can easily be combined with research it should be done, but when it cannot or it seems like it should not, the two should be done separately, affording each the significance it deserves.

For me, then, there was no coexistence between program development and research. I put a wall between them and they remained exclusive. Program development was my job and research was another dimension in my life, a separate one -- certainly just as important to me, but separate. The type of project the Center might have been ready to do did not coincide with my research interest and there is a great deal of important research to be done in this field, not all of which is amenable to program development projects.

Sometimes, perhaps it is in the best interest of both the schools in the collaboration and the researcher if there is not a coexistence. It can be like forcing the proverbial square peg into a round hole. It may be much more efficient and less time-consuming when they coincide, but it may also be less productive in the long run to force a collision.

One of the things I've learned from working at the Center is that you have to be very sensitive to the needs of the people involved because everything depends on their involvement. At times they are ready for certain experiences and at times they are not. Just as the context changes from one collaboration to another, it also sometimes changes within a single collaboration over time. Experiences within the collaboration help form the current context. At the point I entered the Center this was quite clear; what had worked years before needed to be different now. What worked for Sue ten years ago did not work for me; but that does not mean it will not work for someone else at some point in the future.

Mary Lou Veal's paper moves the discussion beyond the context of the Center. She will provide insights to the researcher's perspective in the context of her experiences in an "action science approach" to collaboration.

An Action Science Approach
(Mary Lou Veal)

Despite common roots in collaboration and program development with the other members of this panel, my work at the University of Houston represents a very different model of collaboration. This brief presentation will explain the work in Houston with five schools using an action science approach to collaborative action research. After an explanation of the theoretical framework and the collaboration model, the focus will be on four critical context dimensions of collaboration that emerged from the three-year project (for a more complete description of the project and outcomes, see Veal, Clift, & Holland, 1989).

Action Science

Action science (Argyris, Putnam, & Smith, 1985) is a cyclical process of purposeful intervention designed to facilitate growth through the provision of accurate information about the action process. The action cycle consists of problem framing, formulating an action plan, data collection, data feedback, and finally, revised problem framing and action planning. In this project, the interventions of the university team consist of interview and observational data as well as group process activities to aid schools in identifying and working toward action plans, and provision of resources requested by the schools. Feedback of information relevant to the school-developed action plans for improvement is a critical component of the action science process. Part of the iterative process in this project involves the identification of espoused theories in each school -- that is, stated beliefs or values that one claims to follow. For each identified value, researchers sought confirming and disconfirming evidence that was inferred through the actions of school members. This evidence was communicated to school personnel who used the feedback to revise or design their action plans. The long-term goal of this process is for school members to see feedback as interesting content for reflection and discussion rather than as criticism or disagreement. The process should also help participants see disagreement as a natural consequence of collaborative work. Argyris and Schon (1978) believe that this process of examination of organizational values usually requires the presence of outside facilitators, at least until the organization begins to learn the process they call "double loop learning" -- meaning simply discussion rather than suppression of conflictual issues.

An Overview of the Model

This model (see Figure C) represents "A Project to Develop Collaborative Leadership in Multicultural Settings" which took place from 1987 through 1990. Support was provided by the Danforth Foundation and by matching funds from the districts to pay for substitutes to provide release time for participating teachers. An interdisciplinary team from the University of Houston worked with five volunteer schools (three elementary, one middle, and one senior high) in three school districts (one urban, one suburban, and one near urban). The collaborative action research structure for the project was provided through two network meetings each year for all of the leadership teams.

School-based research is often separate from the teacher preparation program, but such was not the case in this project. The schools were all participants in the early field experience phase and in the student teaching phase of the university's teacher education program. They had expressed interest in pursuing ways to enhance the professional learning cultures in their schools for experienced and novice teachers as well as preservice teachers. This interest arose directly out of their involvement in the teacher preparation program and from their frustration with not having time to spend talking with the preservice teachers and each other about their work.

The University of Houston team consisted of four full-time faculty members and three graduate students during the three years of the project. (University team members included Renee T. Clift, Patricia Holland, Hane McCarthy, Marlene Johnson, Diane Durbin, and Pat Taylor.) School membership teams consisted of one administrator and six to nine teachers from various subject areas or grade levels. At least three university researchers visited each school regularly to facilitate leadership team meetings, collect specific data, and to document each school's progress toward their action plans. In this project, program development was an outgrowth of teachers' professional development, and the research conducted by the university team focused on the action process in each school. Research and teacher development were given equal status though teacher development was given preference when conflicts developed. Provision was made for leadership teams to collect data on their projects and this occurred in various forms in four of the five schools.

Critical Dimensions of Collaboration

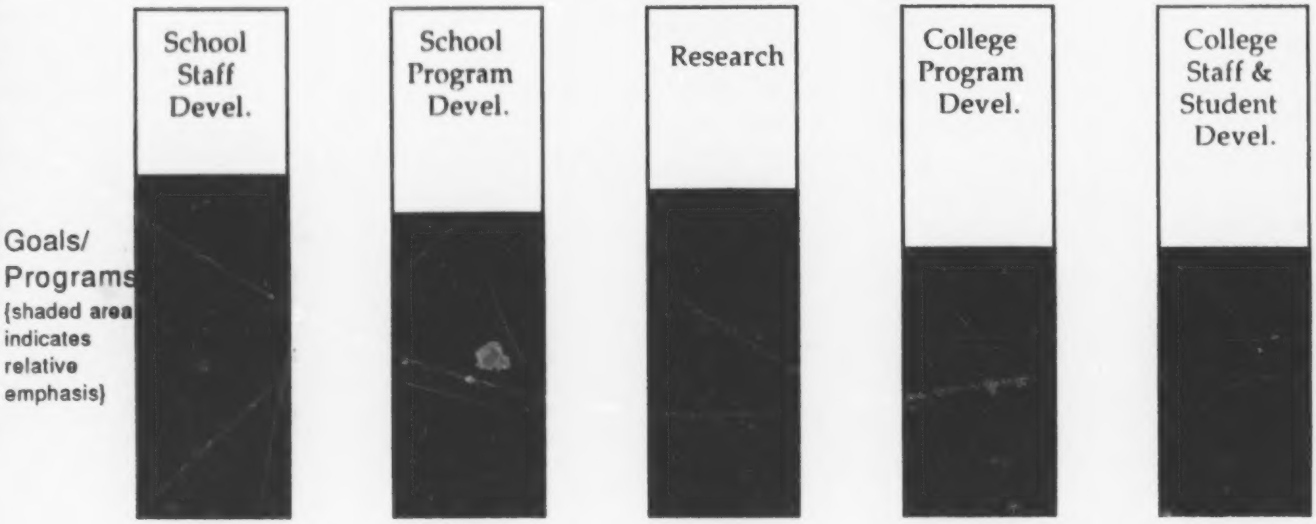
The following four school context dimensions of collaboration emerged early and have endured throughout the project across all five schools. While we cannot claim that they will be encountered in all collaborative relationships, we have consistently seen them in the five contexts of this project as problems which required attention and often impeded the progress of the schools. The dimensions were also encountered in identical ways by the university team. These dimensions center on leadership, structures for collaboration, interpersonal relationships, and individual actions (for more detailed descriptions, see Clift, Holland, & Veal, 1990; Clift, Veal, Johnson, G Holland, 1990).

Leadership Dimension. Leadership was critical to the success of the schools in working toward action plans but leadership roles relative to the project varied as did the teams' reactions to the various leadership styles. Principals took strong leadership roles early in the projects to start a vision of change, but in the schools where teacher leadership was allowed to develop, principals shifted the leadership to a group of teachers while remaining informed about progress. Teachers experienced role conflict as they struggled to carry out team responsibilities while still fulfilling the duties of a full-time teacher. There was also conflict for some teachers concerning their role as a team leader and several teams refused to even appoint one of their members as leader.

Structural Dimension. This dimension refers to both time and formal structures within the school which promote or inhibit collaboration. Without question, the toughest issue facing each school was how to find the time for meeting and working together, and this issue persisted from the very beginning of the project and continues today as each school team struggles with ways to continue as a team.

Several creative strategies for scheduling time to meet were developed, and some time was rescheduled through the provision of money for substitutes so teachers could miss all or part of a school day. Probably the least satisfactory way of scheduling time was simply to meet before or after school. Due to teachers' personal needs, these times were always

A Project to Develop Collaborative Leadership
University of Houston
1988-90



Collaborative Structure

1. Network Meetings
2. Site Visits by UH team
3. Leadership Team Meetings
4. Teacher Education Field

Participating Institutions

School(s)
3 Elementary schools
1 Middle school
1 senior high school

College(s)
University of Houston
Faculty, graduate assist

Support

Danforth Foundation
Matching funds from districts for substitute days

Figure C

insufficient and troublesome. In the two elementary schools which were structured around grade level pods, teachers were able to team teach, cover classes for each other, or allow student teachers to work with a group under the supervision of a nearby teacher. They also experimented with using films or special programs to provide release time for teachers. All of these structural arrangements provided some extra release time for teachers, but in the school with self-contained classrooms, teachers found it more difficult to create extra time to meet. In this third elementary school, we documented a more informal structure of collaboration that took place in smaller periods of time between classes or at lunch. The two secondary schools, with their self-contained classrooms, more closely resembled the third elementary school -- their meetings took place during lunch, before and after school, or on inservice days. The secondary schools tended to delegate certain responsibilities to individuals on the team rather than working collaboratively.

Interpersonal Dimension. It became apparent early in the project that teachers are accustomed to working with students but that they must *learn* to work with adults. An important role of the university team was to facilitate this important process of learning to work together during network meetings and special workshops which provided group process information. Leadership teams at each school learned the importance of conducting meetings that focus on action to resolve problems rather than simply discussing the problem.

The interpersonal dimension includes the need to establish working relationships between university researchers and school-based teacher educators as well as among the school-based teams and the university team. This dimension could be the basis for an entire presentation, but it is sufficient to say that we found conflict to be a natural part of working with people. Collaborative projects must provide for significant periods of time spent in the schools in order to develop a reasonable level of trust.

Individual Dimension. Individual contributions to a collaborative project vary, both in commitment to the goals of the group and in the time and energy individuals are willing to give to the project. In addition, collaborative work with schools may involve one group of teachers one year, and some new faces the next year. There may be intense cycles of involvement from a group of teachers, followed by a cooling off time during which teachers devote their energies solely to their teaching. This should be an expected component of any collaborative project and is consistent with Anderson's (1986) findings.

Conclusions

Can a project emphasize both research and program development? Yes. Is this an easy process? No! Research was used in this project to study the action process and to provide accurate information on the process to the leadership teams. This model of collaboration and program development stresses the professional development of teachers and the enhancement of a professional culture in schools that works to break down the "cult of individualism" identified a decade ago by Hargreaves (1980). The project was unique in its focus on professional development as a process that begins during professional preparation and continues throughout the novice and experienced years. Collaborative action research was used as a vehicle for facilitating the iterative process that was begun at each of the five schools. Changes in the school culture are not easy and this project demonstrated that change must be seen as a long-term process. We believe that the process of change can best be facilitated through the collaboration of those who prepare teachers and those who socialize young teachers into the profession.

The ethical issues around collaborative work are beginning to be addressed more thoroughly and will likely continue to be a topic for discussion for some time to come. Many believe that collaborative work should not be confused or mixed with research and that it cannot succeed if teachers perceive that they are being "used" to advance the career of a university researcher. This issue did emerge during the Houston project and was discussed with schools on many occasions. We will face the issue of anonymity versus revealing names of teachers and schools as school-based personnel participate with us in disseminating the results of the project. We remain convinced that collaborative work among those who are concerned with the preparation of teachers is worthy of research. The results of the research are important to both the university and school communities so long as both groups remember that the real goal is to help children learn.

Sarah Doolittle's paper will include information about yet another type of collaboration, one that she has been involved with for the past few years.

A Flexible Approach
(Sarah Doolittle)

In the final paper in the series, I will describe a collaboration which can best be characterized as "A Flexible Approach." Then, based on my experiences in that collaboration, I will address the issue of coexisting program development and research in schools.

Second Wind

At the University of Massachusetts, Pat

Griffin's Second Wind program is one of the oldest continuously operating physical education collaborations between universities and schools. Staffed by faculty members and graduate assistants in the Department of Professional Preparation in Physical Education, Second Wind's operations, like the Center's, reflect principles described in the inservice literature of the 1980's. We respect teachers as experts in their own settings. We encourage collegiality and strive for a supportive climate for innovation in teaching. We require administrative support in the form of release time and meeting time to implement program change, as well as funding when possible. We incorporate teacher ownership and practicality by inviting teachers' ideas rather than imposing our own. And we recognize that change takes time, and consequently prefer to organize long-term rather than short-term projects with teachers.

Our operation is different from the Center for two major reasons: we serve approximately 60 school districts, and our sources of support vary. These two aspects of collaboration affect the nature of program development activities we can offer and the possibility of undertaking related research.

Participants. Because we serve a large number of teachers in the school districts of three counties, our collaborative relationships and program development activities vary. Unlike the Center, the participants, support, goals, and collaborative structure are likely to be unique for each project (see Figure D).

To serve this large number of participants, Second Wind generally functions in two ways: we initiate program development and we respond to teachers' initiatives. When we initiate programs, we offer programs based on our own interests and perceptions of the needs of teachers in our area. For example: we offer continuing education courses in the summer term; we invite teachers to workshop series on particular topics; and we sponsor and guide a support group for elementary physical education teachers which meets monthly at a local school. In addition, we offer an annual conference called *Time Out for Teaching*, where teachers from school districts present workshops in a conference setting at the University. In this conference and in the other university initiated activities, the university serves the general goal of program development by encouraging isolated and disenchanted teachers to get involved in professional development activities which are practical and applicable to their everyday teaching.

A second way we serve participants is by responding to their requests for an outside resource of innovative curriculum and instructional ideas. This form of program development occurs when a teacher, staff or administrator contacts Second Wind for help on issues or problems they themselves identify. For example, the physical education teachers in a rural high school asked for help integrating fitness programming for their 7-12 grade students. With the support of the school's administration, two faculty members representing Second Wind conducted a series of on-site workshops over the course of a school year. Together, the four teachers and the Second Wind staff designed a fitness plan tailored specifically for the schedule, facilities, and staff of that school.

In other cases, requests for assistance have been directed to expert teachers, graduate assistants or other specialists in our informal network. Being able to respond in some way to program and teacher development requests has built our reputation as a source for outside experts who can focus on the specific needs of a unique physical education program. In these two ways, as initiators and as expert consultants, Second Wind can conduct an almost unlimited variety of program development activities, and can respond to the requests of a large number of school districts.

Support. In addition to the number of participants we serve, another important difference between Second Wind and the Center is the variability of support. The support of any collaboration directly influences the goals one can address and the structure of the relationship between participants. The sources of support for the Second Wind collaborations also help us decide whether research and program development can coexist.

In Second Wind, support means not only funds to pay salaries, mileage and materials, but the personal involvement and the organizational help required to implement changes in programs. The schools' portion of the support comes from district professional development budgets, and from state inservice grants. Districts also support teachers by providing release time to attend conferences, workshops and school-based meetings. Most important, teachers and administrators must be willing to commit themselves to more than "hit-and-run" one-day workshops. Without an investment of time and interest, we know our chances of program change are limited. Of course, ideal amounts of money and time are not always available. We do conduct "hit and run" workshops, and we sometimes provide workshops for teachers who do not want to attend. Second Wind staff recognizes these two circumstances as "suicide missions." When we cannot renegotiate these projects, we lower our sights and aim for goals which are realistic, if limited in terms of school-based support. In short, we seek both financial and personal support from school personnel.

At the University of Massachusetts, support consists of a faculty member and two graduate assistants who are assigned to work in Second Wind as part of their teaching load. Because it is a normal work-related responsibility, neither faculty nor

University of Massachusetts, Amherst

Second Wind

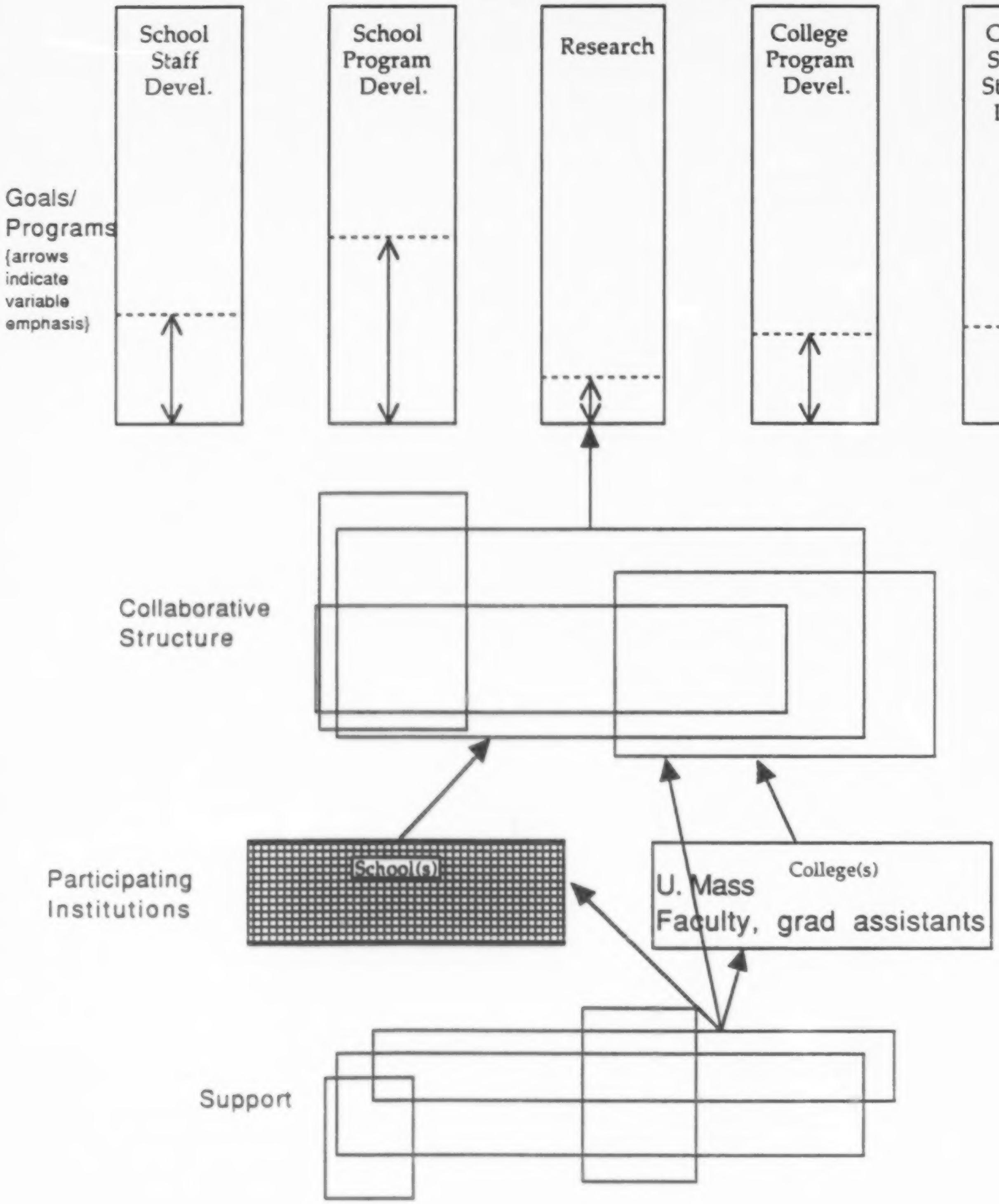

School Staff Devel.
School Program Devel.
Research
College Program Devel.
College Staff & Student Devel.
Goals/ Programs
{arrows indicate variable emphasis}
Collaborative Structure
Participating Institutions
School(s)
College(s)
U. Mass Faculty, grad assistants
Support

Figure D

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

graduate assistants expect to trade off this kind of teaching for research, or to conduct fully planned research studies in conjunction with Second Wind program development projects. Consequently, whether research is conducted during a project depends on the goals of the project, and not on the importance of producing research. We try not to jeopardize a relationship with teachers by conducting research from which teachers will not benefit.

This does not mean, however, that we do not have research on our minds when we work with school teachers and administrators. We often use research findings and data collection methods in the projects. Likewise, Second Wind staff members have presented scholarly papers on inservice development activities at conferences and in print, but these reports are distinctly tangential to the program development priority.

Program Development and Research

Research production per se is seen as a separate goal from program development in Second Wind programs. By research production, I mean systematically exploring and testing theory in the field, and disseminating the results for the scrutiny of our research colleagues. As in all the projects we have heard about thus far, research production is subordinate to the mission of program and teacher development. At Second Wind, however, there have been no research studies conducted as part of our program development projects, although in theory, research and program development could coexist.

As I talked with Pat Griffin and other veteran members of Second Wind about this question, we came to the conclusion that a research agenda probably compromises the motives, and therefore the relationships, within a collaborative structure which has been initiated for the purpose of program development. It is assumed that the university staff will conduct research only if it ultimately serves the school's needs. If research is conducted as a secondary agenda, the school is being shortchanged.

On the other hand, if the Second Wind staff initiates the project, and informs the participants at the outset that research production is part of the goal, then there seems to be no reason research production cannot work. So far we have had no research projects like this at Second Wind. This may be because the relationships are relatively brief in Second Wind projects. There is not time enough to plan and carry out systematic data collection, while simultaneously conducting program development activities. Also, few teachers benefit directly from producing published research. Our experience with practicing teachers warns us away from testing theory at the expense of teaching and encouraging teachers.

There are consequences for this tradition of separating research from program development. The enthusiasm for inservice program development decreases quickly when the university staff realize the limited possibilities for publication. Since promotion and tenure committees regard research production as more important than program development, graduate assistants and junior faculty members usually prefer to devote non-teaching time to activities which are likely to contribute to our research records. Therefore, once our responsibilities to Second Wind have been satisfied, further involvement in program development costs us time better spent pursuing research under more manageable conditions.

Despite our tradition of separate program development and research, the Second Wind experience does contribute to the research agenda of university staff even if it does not normally promote simultaneous research and program development. First, faculty members and graduate assistants stay close to the realities of physical education in schools, and therefore become sharper consumers of the research they read and initiate. The Second Wind contact keeps us in touch with research questions worth asking. Second, school-based research is often conducted in settings where we have developed trust through successful program development. For data collection in both positivistic and alternative paradigms, Second Wind provides access to real settings. And, third, by spending time with teachers in schools, we have collected a group of teachers and school sites which we rely upon to discuss, try, and criticize new curricular and instructional ideas.

In summary, the large number of school-based practitioners and the different forms of support require a program development organization which is quite different from the Center. Second, when we assume the role of consultant responding to client-specified needs, we feel we compromise the collaborative relationship by imposing a structured research agenda. Third, until the research establishment broadens its definition of rigorous research to include research conducted by and for teachers, such as action research and participatory research, developer/researchers will be limited in the type and quality of research they produce, and thus will probably conduct their research elsewhere.

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Collaborative Efforts Between The Ohio State University and Columbus Public Schools to Assist Teachers

Sandra A. Stroot

Recent reform movements in education have encouraged collaboration between schools and universities as means to improve teacher performance and student achievement (Holmes Group, 1986). Combined efforts integrating the expertise of school practitioners and university personnel have provided an ideal setting to truly merge theory and practice.

In a 1986 article in *Educational Leadership*, Shirley Hord cited several studies which differentiated between cooperation and collaboration. Definitions were cited from The New England Program in Teacher Education in 1973; and from Hoyt in 1978:

> *Cooperation:*
>
> Two individuals or organizations reach some mutual agreement, but their work together does not progress beyond this level. (The New England Program in Teacher Education, 1973, p. 22).
>
> A term that assumes two or more parties, each with separate and autonomous programs, agree to work together in making all such programs more successful. (Hoyt, 1978)
>
> *Collaboration:*
>
> Development of the model of joint planning, joint implementation, and joint evaluation between individuals or organizations. (The New England Program in Teacher Education, 1973, p. 22)
>
> A term that implies the parties involved share responsibility and authority for basic policy decision making. (Hoyt, 1978)

In addition to clarifying the differences between cooperation and collaboration, Shirley Hord (1986) identified the collaborative model illustrated in Figure 1. Three categories were addressed in this model: beginning the process of collaboration, communication, and resources and ownership.

As you can see in this model, progression is from a cooperative concept to a collaborative one. Collaboration is a team effort, which addresses needs of the school practitioner and the university teacher educator and researcher. The ultimate goal is to identify and implement strategies to help preservice and inservice teachers become more effective. I believe that this can best be accomplished through collaborative efforts between the schools and universities. Each has a unique contribution that is essential for helping teachers to become more effective and for helping children to learn.

The purpose of this paper is to describe collaborative programs in Columbus, Ohio, that have proven to be successful for the past four years, then briefly mention several collaborative efforts more recently implemented to assist our move toward the professional development school concept. The first three programs are collaborative programs between the College of Education at The Ohio State University and Columbus Public School District. Two additional programs designed to enhance the collaboration between physical education teachers and university personnel in the physical education, teacher education program are also discussed.

The three collaborative programs between the College of Education and Columbus Public School District are: 1) an assistance program for teachers in the Columbus Public School District -- the Peer Assistance and Review Program (PAR); 2) a graduate course -- Professional Development of Beginning Teachers; and 3) a conference jointly sponsored between the Columbus Education Association and The Ohio State University. Each program will be discussed in the following section.

Peer Assistance and Review Program (PAR)

Initiated by the Columbus Education Association (CEA), the Peer Assistance and Review (PAR) program is a collaborative effort between the teachers and administration to provide assistance and evaluation to teachers at all levels of experience. The PAR personnel implement two programs: the intern program and the intervention program.

The Intern Program

The Intern Program is mandatory for all new teachers hired in Columbus. A teacher-consultant selected from the teaching staff is assigned to each intern. Consultants observe each intern approximately once per week, assess teaching performance, provide feedback and suggestions for improvement, provide information on resources available throughout the district, formally evaluate the progress of each intern twice per year, and finally re-

Collaborative Model

Beginning Process

1. Organizations agree on an exchange of tasks, each offering the other a product or service.
2. Organizations join forces (personnel get together) to plan and execute the design of a shared project. A "joint staff" system develops.
3. Organizations agree on projected results, outcomes, products, and services. Shared goals are identified and an action plan outlined.

Communication

- Communication roles are established and definite channels are created for interaction across the organization concerning the joint project. Many "levels" of communication are established, as clear information is the keystone of success in the effort.

Resources/Ownership

1. Both organizations contribute staff time, resources, and capabilities. This is generally defined during planning process.
2. Mutual funding is obtained, perhaps from an outside source, depending on nature of the institutions (private, public, nonprofit, international, etc.)
3. "We" process mode develops -- system ownership.

Figure 1. Collaborative Model -- Shirley Hord, 1986

commend whether the intern should receive a contract for the following year.

The Intervention Program

The Intervention Program is designed to assist experienced teachers who are having difficulty. PAR consultants provide assistance and evaluation to teachers approved for the program. Referral can be initiated by either a principal, another teacher, or through self-referral. There is not time limit, and assistance is continued as long as the teacher is making progress.

PAR is governed by a panel of seven: four represent Columbus Education Association (CEA) and three are appointed by the Columbus Public School administration. Decisions must all pass by a two-thirds vote. PAR consultants are selected from the teaching staff of the district after a series of recommendations and interviews.

Training is provided to PAR consultants on a formal and informal basis. Training sessions include:

Initial Spring Inservice. An inservice is offered each spring for all new PAR consultants scheduled to begin the following autumn. PAR consultants are provided an overview of responsibilities, travel with an experienced PAR consultant to observe interactions between the consultant and intern, and observe reports to the PAR Panel describing interventions or interns having difficulty.

Continuing Workshops, Courses, and Inservices. Workshops and inservices are provided to PAR consultants on a regular basis and include topics such as: supervisory skills, counseling strategies, leadership skills, and communication between the PAR Panel and consultants. Courses, such as Leadership Strategies for Mentor Teachers and Process for Development for Beginning Teachers, are offered from The Ohio State University (Arends, 1990).

Training Materials. Training materials are available to develop observation techniques and consulting strategies, and are used on an individual basis as needed.

Bi-monthly Interactions. PAR personnel schedule bi-monthly interactions between novice and experienced PAR consultants to discuss and address specific issues and concerns of novices.

Informal Consultations. A great deal of informal question/answer sessions also occur. All consultants have office space in a large open area which encourages interaction between participants. A camaraderie develops within the group, and consultants feel free to ask for assistance and are willing to share information and offer suggestions when necessary.

PAR Plus Program

Another program associated with the Peer Assistance and Review team is the PAR Plus program. This program resulted from collaborative efforts between the Columbus Education Association (CEA) and Ohio State University (OSU) to place experienced PAR consultants as supervisors for student teachers. Experienced PAR consultants incorporated the expertise of a master teacher into the supervisory role.

PAR Plus consultants receive supervision training through the PAR program in the Columbus Public School District. In addition, a two-day orientation to supervision of student teachers is offered by the university. If specific supervisory skills unique to the university program or content area are needed, university personnel assist in the training of the PAR personnel. University personnel also worked with PAR Plus consultants to design and implement student teaching seminars which coincide with the student teaching experience.

Professional Development of Beginning Teachers

A graduate course was jointly designed and implemented by consultant teachers in the Peer Assistance and Review (PAR) program and Ohio State University (OSU) faculty from the College of Education representing various program areas. This course was offered to all first-year teachers in the Columbus Public School district, was designed to address issues and concerns of intern teachers, and represented a balance of theory, research, and craft wisdom. Enrollment figures ranging from 75 to 125 over a three-year period indicated the extent of interest generated from a course such as this. Collaboration between the PAR program and OSU has proven to be successful for PAR representatives, OSU faculty, and most important of all, the intern teachers.

In order to better illustrate the purpose of the course, it may be important to explain the objectives of the course, format used to teach the course, and some of the assignments used to address these objectives.

Course Objectives

Course objectives were originally determined by the PAR/OSU team and have been continually modified based on input from intern teachers. Six objectives include:

- To share current knowledge pertaining to issues and problems confronted by beginning teachers and which represent a balance of theory, research, and practice.
- To provide an opportunity for self-assessment -- examine and identify areas that need change.
- To provide an opportunity to implement change in an encouraging and supportive environment.
- To provide a means for teachers to continue efforts to improve teaching performance on an on-going basis.
- To provide opportunities for peer interaction, collaboration, and cooperative learning among course participants.
- To provide information and access to resources, materials, and personnel who can assist and support the beginning teacher in the Columbus Public School District, OSU, and the broader community.

General Format

The format varied according to topic and need for individual interaction. This course was optional and was open to all teachers new to Columbus Public School District. As mentioned previously, 75-125 interns enrolled in this course, and represented a large variety of content areas. In an attempt to individualize instruction as much as possible, interns were divided into groups according to grade level and content areas. Five groups were identified: 1) Elementary School; 2) Middle School; 3) High School; 4) Special Education [all levels]; and 5) Specialists [all levels]. Most sessions included a group presentation or interaction within the content areas.

Each group was further divided into subgroups to interact on a more personal level when needed. For example, for the past two years I worked with the specialists group consisting of art, music and physical education teachers who represented kindergarten through twelfth grade. Some issues were addressed with all specialists in a large group, and others were in breakout group separated according to content area (i.e., art, music, and physical education). Examples of topics that may be discussed in a large group would be: difficulties in addressing large numbers of students taught by specialists, or interactions with parents. Discipline was a topic that was discussed in the large group to address general management strategies, but then breakout groups to discuss issues specific to content areas seemed to be more effective. Dress cuts were not an issue for art teachers, but could be a major problem for secondary physical education specialists.

Representatives from OSU and from PAR were enlisted to work with interns within their own area of expertise to help provide appropriate and relevant information. Between OSU and PAR representatives, there were at least two instructors in each area of specialization in our specialist group men-

1. Classroom management and discipline
    - Identification of own management style (questionnaire, Q-sort)
    - Management of student to optimize learning
    - Management of the environment to optimize learning

2. Teaching and learning strategies
    - What is effective teaching?
    - What is an effective teacher?
    - Teaching styles
    - Learning styles

3. The role of specialists in the general curriculum
    - Unique contribution of own subject area (What needs are addressed in physical education that are not addressed in other areas?)
    - Cooperative/collaborative efforts
    - Integration of subject areas across the curriculum

4. Special needs students
    - Special populations
    - Mainstreaming
    - At-risk students

5. Other -- topics identified by students as needing further discussion (How to deal with parents, educational reform, etc.)

Figure 2. Topics addressed in Professional Development Course

tioned previously. Topics addressed in this course are included in Figure 2.

Incorporated within each topic were suggestions for new teachers on resources available the school district, university, and community. A few examples from Columbus Public School District are as follows:

1. *Instruction and Professional Development Committee*
    - Planning workshops, seminars, courses, etc. based on identified interests or needs.
    - Working with existing committees dealing with matters of instruction or professional development.
    - Working with area universities to get more teacher involvement in teacher training.

2. *Disciplinary Assistance*
    a. Positive Efforts for Adjustment and Knowledge (PEAK)
        - Discipline alternative to expulsion.

    b. Individualized Program for Attainment of Success in School (IPASS)
        - Gives expelled students an opportunity in school while learning new coping techniques.

3. *Special Education Task Force*
    - Deals with all general concerns in the area of special education. Referrals were available for specific concerns.

4. *Children At-Risk*
    - Proposals have been implemented to assist children at-risk. Information and analysis regarding success of the program are available.

Assignments

A series of assignments designed to focus on the classroom environment of each teacher was also embedded within each topic. Assignments were individualized to address unique situations confronted by interns on a day-to-day basis. Again, there was an attempt to integrate research and practice. Examples will best describe the intent of assignments in this course.

1. The first assignment was designed to enhance the concept of effective teaching and effective teachers. Each intern was to observe another teacher in the same content area. Substitutes were hired to cover classes if necessary. Initially, as this topic was discussed, it was easy to envision classroom teachers observing another teacher in their own content area.

A new third grade teacher merely walked across the hall during his/her planning period, and observed another third grade teacher. This concept was more difficult for the specialist, as art, music, and physical education teachers must go to another building to observe another teacher in their own content area. The initial solution was to assign another task to the specialists, but through discussion and negotiation, Columbus Public School district administrators were willing to hire substitute teachers for all specialists in the course, which is just one indication of the commitment to new teachers in the district. Tasks were assigned for each observation to focus on specific areas and are illustrated in Figure 3.

2. Throughout the course, interns completed critical incidence forms and were asked to address the topic of the week. For example, if the next topic was discipline, the intern would attempt to identify three incidents specific to classroom discipline for the following week. These examples would then be addressed within breakout groups for discussion with peers to offer understanding and suggestions for improving the situation. Interns shared suggestions and strategies that worked. This was a positive discussion, not gripe session!

3. In an attempt to address issues pertaining to children at-risk, a series of classes were devoted to this topic and are described in Figure 4. Interns seemed to think that this topic was one of the more helpful topics addressed in the course, partially due to their lack of training on how to work with children at-risk in their professional preparation programs.

4. Action Research Project -- A major project in this course was the action research project. Collaborative action research "...brings together teachers, staff developers, and university faculty with the goals of improving practice, contributing to educational theory, and providing staff development" (Oja and Smulyan, 1988, p. 24). The action research project was used to provide a means for teachers to identify and address concerns in their own teaching environment. Teachers were asked to follow several steps similar to those described by Martinek and Butt (1988), but worded slightly differently to attempt to reduce research terminology. Topics were identified by interns, and then discussed with university or PAR personnel. Questions included:

1. What is the first issue/concern that you would like to address in your classroom?
2. How would you like to address this issue/concern?
3. How would you measure whether your effort was successful?
4. Implement the project?
5. What were the results of your project?
6. Modify project or identify new project?

Examples of action research projects are illustrated in Figure 5, and include one from a high school physical education teacher and one from an elementary art teacher.

I believe one key element for success is to assure that the action research topic is teacher initiated. For our project, interns identified their own topic, and assistance was provided from school and university personnel on teachers' own perceived needs, rather than an externally perceived need. An ownership and commitment to the project was developed by the intern. This was demonstrated as teachers continued their action research throughout the year, even after the winter quarter was over, through collaboration with the PAR consultant working with each intern. Teachers were excited about receiving individual assistance in dealing with their own problems or concerns.

Evaluation

Although this course was successful in many ways, one of the most frequent comments from interns after completion of the course related to their ability to interact with peers in similar circumstances. Comments included:

- "The knowledge gleaned from this class has literally changed the way I teach and I have acquired more contacts for peer support."
- "I like sharing and being able to talk out things you're having problems with in class, and then getting feedback and suggestions."
- "The behavior management portion was probably the most useful part because it focused on areas I dealt with in my class; discussion with others sharing the same problems was helpful."

CEA/OSU Workshop Conference

The third collaborative effort was a conference provided each year through combined efforts between Columbus Education Association (CEA) and Ohio State University (OSU). Most topics were initiated by school personnel, and topics were presented by university faculty, school administrators, and teachers.

Since 1986, CEA and OSU have co-sponsored a professional conference addressing pertinent issues. The annual conference attracted approximately 200 participants per year from within the Columbus Public Schools, Ohio State University, and other school and university personnel interested in the annual topic. Topics from 1986 through 1990 are illustrated in Figure 6.

We have, as many other universities have, developed and maintained a good relationship with public school teachers. In addition to college-wide collaborative efforts, we in Physical Education/Teacher Education have initiated strate-

Observation tasks included:

1. Identify characteristics of an effective teacher. (Class preceding observation)
2. The intern observes the teacher.
3. Intern identifies effective characteristics of teacher observed.
4. Intern describes what this teacher could have done to make the class even more effective.
5. Intern describes how ideas can be implemented in own classroom environment.
6. Intern implements at least one new idea (identified and discussed with PAR representative).

Figure 3. Observation assignment in Professional Development Course (Assignment #1)

Series of class sessions addressing children at-risk:

1. *Presentation* -- A speaker from The Ohio State University was recruited to address issues of students at-risk.
2. *Panel discussion* -- A panel followed the formal presentation, and consisted of the speaker, another representative from OSU, and representatives from the school district (PAR personnel, counselors, and experienced teachers dealing with at-risk students).
3. *Identify and track student* -- Interns enrolled in the course were asked to go back to their classroom, identify at least one student considered to be at-risk, and track academic and behavior patterns of that child.
4. *Interaction with counselors* -- The following week, counselors trained to work with at-risk students met with small groups of interns to discuss individual issues and concerns, offer suggestions for further assistance, and show beginning teachers that they were not alone out there with these problems.

Figure 4. Class sessions addressing children at-risk in Professional Development Course

gies to enhance the relationship between university and public school personnel. In an attempt to further develop this relationship to include more interaction, several projects have been initiated; one is already implemented and the other is in the planning stage and will go into effect in the 1992-93 school year.

Franklin County Physical Educators

One of my colleagues, Deborah Tannehill, initiated the formation of a group of physical educators in the mid-Ohio area to be able to share needs, interests, and ideas relating to the physical education profession. It was designed to stimulate communication and collaboration among public school teachers and between university and public school personnel. This effort produced the first annual Franklin County Physical Education Conference, with activities and information presented by public school and university faculty and administrators. A directory of Franklin County Physical Educators was also developed and distributed to encourage continued communication and collaboration throughout the year. A second conference is planned for Spring, 1991. Information requested from these teachers also helped identify topics for summer workshops based on requests by public school teachers.

Professional Development Model

The second collaborative program in physical education consists of a model for professional development schools that is quite different from those already implemented for the Holmes Group. One major effort at school reform promoted by the Holmes Group is the implementation of Professional Development Schools. By professional developmental school, we mean "...a school for the development of novice professionals, for continuing development of experienced professionals, and for

1. Physical Education Teacher (High School)

Issue:	Dress cuts
Goal:	Eliminate/reduce dress cuts
Solution:	Reward system for dressing *Individual Reward* -- Points were awarded to each individual who dresses -- points contribute toward grade for that unit (two-week units) *Group Reward* -- Points were awarded to the entire group when all members in group dress (Groups of 5-6) -- Choices of activities were offered when predetermined number of points were accumulated.
Assessment of success:	Frequency of dress cuts for groups and individuals were calculated and compared to predetermined criteria.

2. Art Teacher (Elementary School)

Issue:	Difficulty in providing feedback to all students
Goal:	Provide feedback to each student at least once per day
Solution:	Mark papers when feedback is provided Have different color marker for each day of a project -- if a project takes three days, have three different markers, Day 1 -- RED, Day 2 -- YELLOW, and Day 3 -- BLUE. Each time feedback is provided to a child, make a mark on the back of the art project. At the end of the project, the teacher has a record of total feedback provided each day to each child.
Assessment of success:	Determine frequency of feedback provided to each child and compare to predetermined goals.

Figure 5. Examples of Action Research Projects

the research and development of the teaching profession" (Holmes Group, 1990, p. 1).

In the Holmes group model for a professional development school, it was suggested that a few good schools be identified, and university and public school faculty work together to meet challenges of teaching and learning. The reality of this model is that it will not work for those of us in the "specialty areas." For example, if six professional development schools were identified and became successful at the elementary level, these schools could provide over one hundred clinical sites for elementary education students, but only six sites for physical education, art, and music specialists. In an effort to address this problem, the physical education/teacher education faculty at The Ohio State University is proposing an alternative model modifying the professional development school concept. Physical education specialists in a district or community would be identified through their interest and commitment to contributing toward better teaching in their own school environment. In this model, both university and school district personnel can assess their own programs to determine needs and contributions. Methods to address these needs could then be negotiated and contributions by each person and/or institution determined.

Although interaction occurred in the past between university and public school personnel, the professional development school model promotes a collaborative approach. Personnel from both institutions begin by discussing their needs contributions. Through negotiation, agreements are determined with both institutions benefitting and contributing. Universities may be able to provide preservice coaches, assistance with fitness and chil-

CEA/OSU Workshop Conference

1986: Educational Policy and Educational Reform: Extending Professional Competence
1987: Models for Instructional Improvement: Opportunity for Teacher Leadership
1988: Setting the Educational Agenda for the Future
1989: Site-Based, Shared Decision Making
1990: New Roles of Teacher Leadership

Figure 6. CEA/OSU Conference Topics

Stage 1: Hostility and Skepticism
Stage 2: Lack of Trust
Stage 3: Period of Truce
Stage 4: Mixed Approval
Stage 5: Acceptance
Stage 6: Regression
Stage 7: Renewal
Stage 8: Continuing Progress

Figure 7. Developmental Stages in Collaboration -- Trubowitz, 1986

dren's motor assessment, preservice teachers to assist in classroom settings including adapted physical education, and preservice work with intramural and community recreation programs. School districts can provide experienced teachers and coaches interested in assisting preservice teachers become more effective. Inquiry into teaching and learning can also become a collaborative effort between teachers and university personnel, with the research questions designed to assist real teachers with real problems of teaching. Research would be designed to benefit the teachers and students as well as the university personnel and preservice teachers.

Sidney Trubowitz (1986) identified eight stages of development of school-college collaboration, moving from total lack of understanding between the two organizations to continuing efforts with mutual sharing and trust. (See Figure 7.) As we move toward collaboration between schools and universities, we do not always progress in a linear pattern. Continuous assessment and revisions are involved, and, as always, some work better than others. The ultimate goal, however, is to continue moving forward -- toward achieving shared goals and shared benefits through the use of the collaborative model.

Five school/university collaborative programs have been discussed in this paper: PAR/PAR Plus, Professional Development of Beginning Teachers, CEA/OSU Conference, Franklin County Physical Educators' Group, and Professional Development Districts/Communities. At The Ohio State University, we are at various stages in this developmental process as indicated in the description of each effort at collaboration in our move toward professional development schools.

One key element in assisting the development of collaborative programs, however, was the positive interaction that has occurred over time on an informal basis. As mentioned previously, at Ohio State, we have developed and maintained a good relationship with the public school teachers. As some of the mistrust has been overcome through previous interaction, we can begin new programs with a more collaborative, or at least cooperative framework. In many instances, the foundation has been set. However, this is only the beginning of the collaborative effort. Teacher education does not end at the end at the time of graduation, but continues throughout the teaching career, as demonstrated by Huling-Austin's model (Hulint-Austin, 1989). If this transition is a smooth, constant change, progress toward becoming an effective teacher will continue in a forward pattern. It is not an easy process -- each person in each organization must be willing to be flexible in the process of accomplishing these shared objectives, but it can be done, and can result in benefits for all from the shared expertise of a variety of contributors.

I want to end this paper by offering a statement made by Phillip Schlechty, which illustrates the difficulty of collaboration between large institutions. "In some respects, says Schlechty, working with a university, a large school system, and a well-organized teachers association is like trying to 'get dinosaurs to do a ballet.' Without persistence, a clear perception of how these dinosaurs move, and the personal relationships that help expedite bureaucratic procedures, potential collaborators could easily give up in despair. The good news is that with mutual understanding and trust, even dinosaurs can dance" (De Bevois, 1986, p. 12).

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A Collaborative Approach to Practica Based Teacher Preparation: The Nebraska-Lincoln Model

Tom Sharpe, Vi Bahls, Sharon Seagren and Phil Wolfe

> By "Professional Development School" we do not mean just a laboratory school for university research, nor a demonstration school. Nor do we mean just a clinical setting for preparing student and intern teachers. Rather, we mean all of these together: A school for the development of novice professionals, for continuing development of experienced professionals, and *for the research and development of the teaching profession.*
>
> -- The Holmes Group (1990, p. 9)

Due to minimal practitioner use of university based content knowledge within the context of their day-to-day instructional efforts (Bain, 1990), educational reform is now promoting stronger working ties between higher education teacher preparation programs and the public school sector (Goodlad, 1990; Holmes Group, 1990). In that research has established the relative importance of classroom processes and teacher practices with regard to students' academic development (Greenwood, Delquadri, & Hall, 1989), opportunities need to be created which allow researchers and practitioners to communally interact over the relationships among pedagogy theory *and* actual gymnasium activity. Only in this way may we form new conceptions of activities which, when put in practice, form a *communal* view of *warranted* action (Richardson, 1990). In this light, the suggestion that for research to influence practice the two must be applicably connected, is well taken (Berliner, 1986; Lawson, 1990; Tinning, 1987). Collaborative models appear to be a means in which researchers and practitioners can work *together* to conduct and interpret research, actively apply the pedagogical knowledge gained, and communally prepare our undergraduates for the practical realities of inservice teaching.

The Collaborative

As public school and university professionals are inherent resources for one another, we, within the School of HPER, at the University of Nebraska-Lincoln (UNL), have implemented a professional development and research bonded collaborative, in the hope that it will stimulate interest in new approaches to teacher education and education research elsewhere. Our initial success has largely resulted from recognition that collaboration is in itself an interactive system to which scientists, practitioners, and schools within the surrounding community make *equal* contributions across *all* areas of endeavor. Personnel impetus has come from the pedagogy faculty in concert with the practicing teachers and administrators within our two laboratory schools and the surrounding Lincoln Public School (LPS) system. In this light, practitioner ownership, public school administrative support, and a positive working relationship across camps are better ensured.

Personnel Duties

Table 1 highlights personnel tasks within the group. Through combining traditionally independent models we, again, think of our collaborative enterprise as a research bonded *and* program assistance prototype. Taking our conceptual initiative from Huberman (1990), our four categories of personnel are in continuous contact throughout the scientific inquiry process which provides a greater propensity for informing and influencing actual instructional practice in the surrounding school system and in facilitating future collaborative efforts.

All personnel are also actively engaged in instruction and preservice teacher evaluation. University faculty develop and teach the conceptual/theoretical undergraduate classwork, devise evaluation instruments in concert with the practitioner staff, steer field research projects to ensure rigor of scientific method, and manage the necessary administrative tasks which allow for collaborative survival. Practitioners in our elementary and secondary model sites teach applicative instructional strategies to our undergraduates both in the methods classrooms and at the model sites in concert with university faculty, supervise preservice application of these materials in the model site setting, and provide impetus for the development and testing of research questions which are of practical relevance.

The most exhilarating personnel relationship we have implemented currently involves practitioners-at-large within the LPS district. On an annual rotating basis, one elementary and one secondary educator from the public system is hired to monitor

TABLE 1

MODEL COLLABORATIVE PERSONNEL DUTIES

UNL Faculty

1. Develop and disseminate conceptual and theoretical material contained within the scientific knowledge base.
2. Train all staff in the evaluation instruments used throughout the teacher preparation process.
3. Steer research projects fomented by practitioner experiences in terms of the tools of accepted science which, in turn, adds to the knowledge base.
4. Act in a liason capacity in management of the necessary legal, ethical, administrative, and communicative paperwork which ensures joint approval of the research and programmatic agendas of UNL, the LPS system, and the model laboratory schools.

Model Site Practitioners

1. Classroom dissemination of instructional strategies.
2. Supervision of student instructional strategy applications.
3. In concert with UNL faculty:
    (a) Develop and implement research projects.
    (b) Test and apply research outcomes.

LPS Practitioners

1. Classroom presentation of curricular content materials.
2. Mentor, monitor, and evaluate student teachers.
3. Work with UNL faculty on teacher evaluation research.

Graduate Teaching Assistants

1. Teach part of involved practitioner loads, allowing for practitioner leave time to work collaboratively.
2. Oversee the teacher preparation lab:
    (a) Collate, file, and evaluate the data-base.
    (b) Assist in teacher evaluation instrument training.
    (c) Supervise classroom laboratory experiences.
3. Work with UNL faculty and Model Site practitioners on field research projects.

and evaluate our student teachers, teach curricular content classes, and work in a research capacity with regard to the continual evolution of our preservice instructional evaluation techniques. These practitioners also retain their teaching positions within the public school system, allowing for an ongoing tie between the higher education preparatory institution and the surrounding public school district. In implementation, this makes for a university teaching, public school instruction alternation on a daily basis, alloting 50 percent of each practitioner's workload to each obligation.

In turn, our graduate student duties include teaching the remainder of the practitioner load in the public schools, as well as teaching classroom laboratory experiences and aiding in the ongoing research agenda of the group. In actuality, this allows for the large body of practicing physical educators within the surrounding school district to be actively involved in the teacher preparation process, ensures practical instructional experiences for our graduate students, and perhaps most importantly, better ensures ongoing faculty familiarity with the ever-changing public education environment. In essence, this arrangement has facilitated the development and maintenance of effective networking within the surrounding physical education community and the higher education teacher preparation program.

Our collaborative arrangement provides some additional advantages, among them: 1) continuing education of the surrounding practitioner population; 2) practitioner familiarity with the conceptual and theoretical intent of our teacher preparation program; 3) a strengthening of the working alliance between research and practice; 4) higher education familiarity with current practitioner needs and concerns; and 5) renewed legitimacy of teacher preparation programming in the eyes of the surrounding educational community.

A Working Model

Conceptually, our model is founded on an *integrated* approach to three traditionally autonomous groups: the liberal arts preparatory program, the teacher education core, and the world of practice. In constructing our model, we specifically built upon the ways in which both higher education faculty and practitioner areas of expertise could integrally prepare our undergraduates for inservice duty. Given this, Figure 1 portrays the content areas to which our preservice teachers are exposed, illustrating the symbiosis across university and practitioner roles.

We first assumed that the generic undergraduate requisites which form the liberal arts curriculum core would arm our students with the analytical tools necessary for coming to new means of critical comprehension, inherently required by the dynamic instructional situations to which they will be exposed. Teacher preparation faculty are then primarily charged with disseminating a physical education content knowledge foundation which, when tied to pedagogical precepts, equips the preservice teacher with the theoretical requisites for instructional application.

Once on board in terms of philosophical congruence to the program, practitioner personnel within our model are first charged with the task of familiarizing the preservice population with the realities of the inservice perspective, in the hopes of restructuring their subjective warrants and providing for a more positive school socialization. They also provide a practitioner's view of the applicable classroom management skills and skill content areas necessary to provision of a foundation for gymnasium survival. Second, we have promoted practitioner personnel to our students as their primary mentors. This has been accomplished by integrating practitioners centrally to classroom experiences throughout the program and by promoting them as primary supervisors throughout the concurrent preservice practicum sequence.

A Practica Hierarchy

With these institutional and personnel ties in place, a cohesive and consistent teacher training treatment package is better ensured. This is largely due to: 1) less variable conditions of supervision in terms of training method and evaluation materials; 2) greater cohesion across practica supervisors; 3) more tightly controlled and logically sequenced practica; and 4) more relevant practica based on the integrated knowledge of both faculty and practicing teachers.

Of ongoing concern to our program is maintenance of quality control regarding the theory to practice connections within the didactic portions of classroom preparation, the practica supervisory system inclusive of student teaching experiences, and the co-operating teachers with whom we place our students for these experiences. Due to the large amounts of time spent by the preservice teacher in applied situations, collaborative field site approaches to teacher education appear to provide one of the means of better ensuring a *systematic* approach to preservice education and evaluation, and perhaps more importantly, the selection and training of co-operating teachers. Again, the systematic catalyst involves our use of practicing teachers in the surrounding school district as student teacher supervisors on an annual rotation basis. While establishing a strong tie with the world of practice, we are also training a future co-operating teacher pool for our many observational, assistance, and student teaching experiences which ensures a consistent teacher

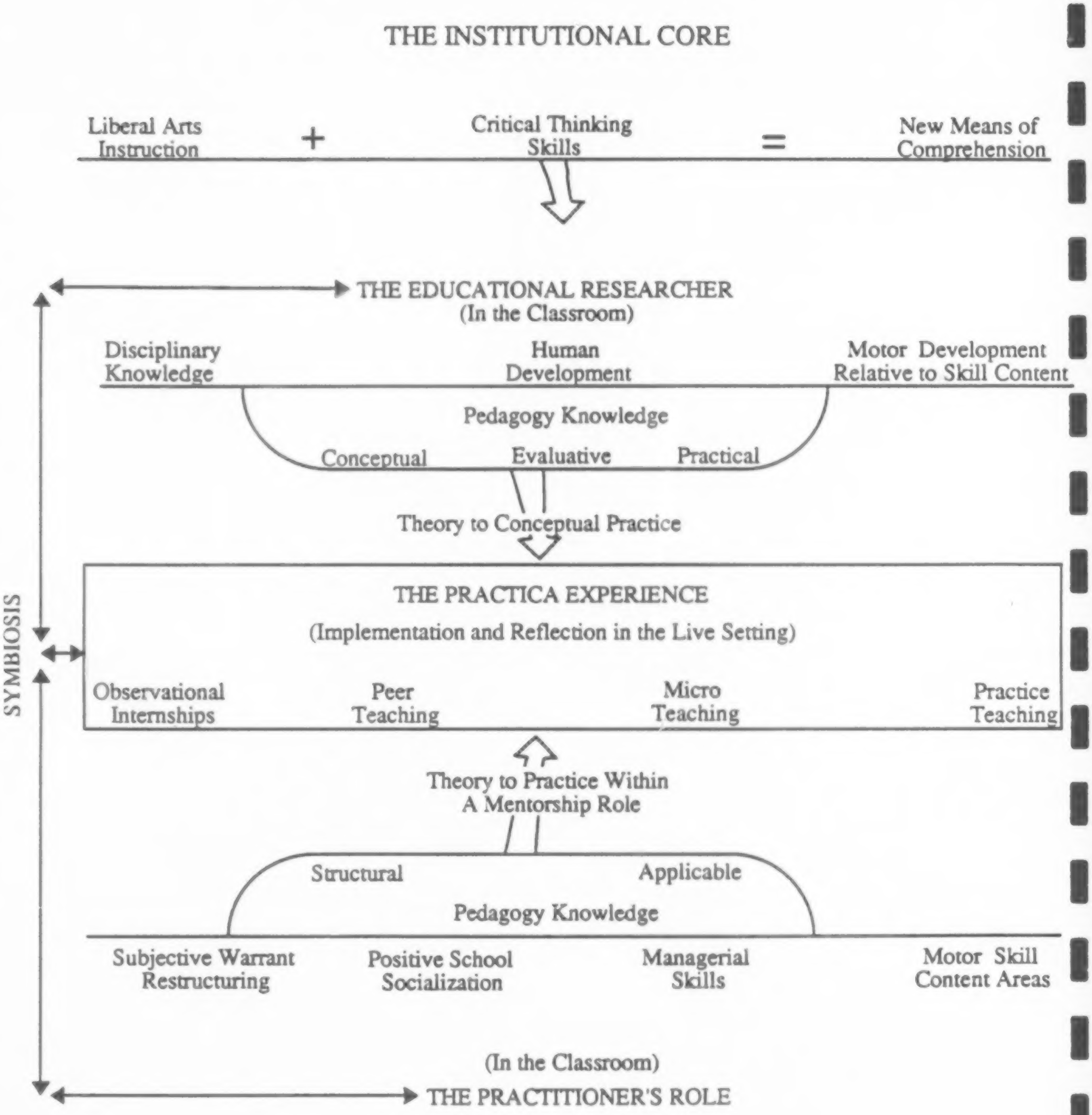
THE INSTITUTIONAL CORE
Liberal Arts Instruction
+
Critical Thinking Skills
=
New Means of Comprehension
THE EDUCATIONAL RESEARCHER
(In the Classroom)
Disciplinary Knowledge
Human Development
Motor Development Relative to Skill Content
Pedagogy Knowledge
Conceptual
Evaluative
Practical
Theory to Conceptual Practice
THE PRACTICA EXPERIENCE
(Implementation and Reflection in the Live Setting)
Observational Internships
Peer Teaching
Micro Teaching
Practice Teaching
Theory to Practice Within A Mentorship Role
Structural
Applicable
Pedagogy Knowledge
Subjective Warrant Restructuring
Positive School Socialization
Managerial Skills
Motor Skill Content Areas
(In the Classroom)
THE PRACTITIONER'S ROLE
SYMBIOSIS

Figure 1. The Nebraska-Lincoln collaborative symbiosis.

training philosophy across preservice experiences. Though objective data are still needed for confirmation, we are seeing that this tends to greatly reduce preservice negative socialization and strongly reinforces the theoretical and technical components of our teacher training program throughout our practica experiences. This should, in turn, allow a greater propensity for long term behavioral change in our preservice ranks. How long this phenomenon will extend into their inservice careers is still open to question; however, an initial positive indication is evident.

Figure 2 relates the experiential sequence put in place for our preservice population. As Siedentop (1983) has stated, teaching must be viewed as a set of skills to be practiced, evaluated, and reflected upon in ensuring improved future performance. Further, a hierarchial approach to practice should be implemented in better providing for *appropriate* practice at a reasonable level of difficulty for the preservice teacher, just as appropriate matches between pupil ability and motor skill content are necessary to student learning. For whether a neophyte or highly skilled, practice of pedagogical fundamentals is necessary to continually improve overall instructional performance. In this light, we have instituted a practica hierarchy which occurs in concert with the didactic portions of the preservice experience. These range from observational tasks, to assistance encounters, to mini-teaching episodes in the live setting, to supervised large group teaching practice, and culminate in the semi-autonomous student teaching exercise. Further, we have predicated this training on a group of six core principles listed in Table 2.

Of these principles, we have prioritized the need for preservice teachers to be able to generalize various components of the same instructional repertoire appropriately across multiple setting and content characteristics. Multiple practice experiences have therefore been incorporated across different subject matters and pupil populations. Further, empirical measurement portfolios across instructional and context elements utilizing the *same* instrument across all practicum episodes has been undertaken in providing a clear indicator of relative improvement for the preservice teacher.

Given our personnel duty arrangement within the practica hierarchy, a strong visual bond between higher education faculty and experienced practitioners is reinforced for the preservice population throughout their practical education. Further, scientific and craft knowledge information, once thought to be predominantly independent and even conflicting in nature, is communally presented and implemented in applied settings. This, again, allows for an integrated systematic approach to preservice education in terms of: 1) similar practica experiences for all preservice trainees, 2) identical evaluation instruments for each practica experience, 3) a cohesive practica hierarchy in which each experience builds upon the preceding episodes, and 4) consistent supervision, feedback, and reinforcement for the undergraduate population.

Summary

We, at University of Nebraska-Lincoln, believe that teaching should not be viewed as product, but as a continuously evolving process. Our model exemplifies this process approach by taking the preservice teacher through a tightly sequenced system of experiences which are conceptually and applicatively integrated. To recapitulate, benefits are viewed as:

1. Tying the systematic knowledge of teaching to actual practice.
2. Research interests are less removed from the realities of schooling.
3. Experienced practitioners may continue their education.
4. Preservice teachers benefit from information presented in concert from heretofore independent sources. These benefits are most strikingly evident in subjective warrant and negative socialization retrenchment.

In accordance with Goodlad (1990), our collaborative model is aspiring to build a corps of competent and committed physical education teachers by recommitting to the long term bond between teacher education, pedagogy research, and the world of practice. Only by conveying a working understanding to both practitioner and higher education faculty that they may each *equally* benefit the professional development of the other, will we overcome the traditionally separatist relationship each has fomented. Additionally, the outcomes of these efforts will hopefully aid in overcoming the historically bound illegitimacy stigma which has plagued past educational reform efforts.

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TABLE 2

CORE COLLABORATIVE MODEL PRINCIPLES

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1. Learning ABOUT teaching is only a minor part of learning to teach.

2. If teaching skills are to be acquired then:

    (a) They must be PRACTICED.
    (b) Students must be held ACCOUNTABLE for acquiring them.
    (c) Students teaching skills must be EVALUATED EMPIRICALLY.
    (d) Students must be COMPETENT EVALUATORS of others.

3. Acquired teaching skills are only valuable insofar as they are GENERALIZED to a variety of naturalistic settings.

4. Teaching skill generalization must be TAUGHT, not ASSUMED.

5. Teaching skill generalization is most effectively taught through:

    (a) SELECTED PRACTICA.
    (b) In a variety of differential APPLIED SETTINGS.
    (c) SYSTEMATIC CONTROL by program personnel.
    (d) Intermittant REINFORCEMENT of the teaching skills emphasized in the didactic portions of program coursework.

6. To successfully master the requisite teaching and evaluation component skills, students must be EXPOSED TO RESEARCH germane to the program's scientific agenda.

Note: Taken in part from the West Virginia University, Department of HPEAT, mission statement drafted by Andrew Hawkins (1988).

THE PRACTICA EXPERIENCE SEQUENCE

Undergraduate
Experiential
Time Line

1st Year ------------------------------- 1. Observation experiences.
- (a) Multiple settings.
- (b) Multiple pedagogy foci.
- (c) Descriptive / analytic tasks in gymnasium settings.

2nd Year ------------------------------- 2. Micro teaching in the live setting.
- (a) Multiple settings.
- (b) Narrowly focused pedagogy skill use within each experience.
- (c) Mini-teaching experiences across a variety of subject matter.
- (d) Assisted supervision.

3rd Year ------------------------------- 3. Large group peer teaching.
- (a) Multiple settings.
- (b) Full range of pedagogy skills.
- (c) Teacher and student role playing across a variety of subject matter.
- (d) Complete classroom autonomy.

4. Large group teaching in the live setting.
- (a) Multiple settings.
- (b) Utilization of a full range of pedagogy skills.

4th Year ----------------------------------- (c) Limited time focus, full class, mini-teaching experiences across a variety of subject matter.
- (d) Assisted supervision.

5. Student teaching.
- (a) Same setting.
- (b) Utilization of a full range of pedagogy skills.
- (c) Broadly focused, multiple unit experiences which replicate the inservice environment.
- (d) Gradual movement away from assisted supervision, toward complete classroom autonomy.

Figure 2. A collaborative practica hierarchy.

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The Niagara Falls Physical Education Project: A Retrospective on a Program Assistance and Staff Development Model

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Pat Hagan, Carolyn King, Ralph Penale

Concern for the quality and status of school physical education programs has been a growing topic of discussion for the past decade. This conference and the National Conference on Secondary Physical Education being planned for December of this year are indicative of the profession's recognition of the scope and seriousness of the problems and challenges which confront us. It has been suggested that university-based and school-based professionals can and should work collaboratively in order to achieve coordinated and comprehensive change in the nature and substance of school physical education programs. Yet collaboration between these two groups has been relatively rare due to a variety of forces and factors which have tended to separate them rather than to engage them in effective working relationships.

Historically, higher education faculty and school practitioners have represented two distinctive subcultures in physical education and consequently, although always armed with the best intentions, have been only sporadic and infrequent interlopers in each other's educational world. For the most part our professional interaction has generally been limited to university-based teacher certification course work, intermittent contact through professional organizations, the typical one-shot superintendents day workshops, and presumed communication through professional literature and research, much of which has sadly remained either unnoticed, unread or under-utilized by teachers in their respective school districts. Although these efforts have been constructive in *knowing* more about our discipline and profession, it seems equally clear that programmatic and systemic *applications* of that knowledge, directed toward improved professional practice, have been alarmingly inadequate and generally have not had a significant impact and influence on a vast number of school physical education programs.

Collaboration initiatives and approaches, including program assistance and research bonded models (Martinek and Schempp, 1988), have the potential to move us beyond the conventional transitory strategies of the past, which have focused on individual teachers, to hopefully include and involve university personnel, entire teaching staffs and administrators together in schools. In this approach to program and staff development, university-based faculty/researchers legitimately share the responsibility for school-based projects with teachers and administrators. Their role is to provide a conceptual framework for the project, supply resource materials, help integrate knowledge, facilitate the work of the school personnel, describe and analyze the procedures and help document the products and outcomes. Anderson (1980) has pointed out that the important outcomes of these projects are the actual program and professional changes that occur, many of which are often unexpected. Although control of the numerous variables that effect such endeavors is limited, the work seems justifiable as a viable area of study since it can significantly alter the educational experience of large groups of teachers and thousands of students. In addition, the documented change procedures and curriculum segments may be valuable to others who would undertake such projects.

This presentation is about the Niagara Falls Physical Education Collaborative Project. More specifically, it is a retrospective account of a program assistance and staff development project that has extended over a six-year period as a collaborative venture, although at times it may have been more accurately described as a collaborative adventure. The Niagara Falls School District is a relatively large urban school district comprised of nine elementary schools, two middle schools, and two high schools with thirty-three certified physical education teachers servicing over nine thousand students. A District Coordinator of Health, Physical Education and Athletics administers the program. In 1984, my Niagara Falls colleagues were faced with a Board of Education program redesign mandate, resulting from a highly critical evaluation report submitted by a curriculum review task force in 1983. The District Coordinator, in conjunction with the Physical Education Program Steering Committee, contacted me at Adelphi seeking a long term (initially two years) collaboration relationship in addressing the program redesign mandate which included a cyclical five-year review plan.

Through Adelphi, I had been seeking such an extended arrangement, but had failed until then to find a school district which could make the appropriate time and resource commitment to a collaboration of the scope which I had envisioned. Following a day-long visit in Niagara Falls with administrators and teachers, an agreement was reached regarding commitments from the university, school district and teachers to a program and staff development collaborative project directed toward improving the physical education program.

The project was built on what I call an Associative Inservice Model focused on integrating and applying pedagogical knowledge and concepts with the physical education teachers and administrators in the school district. The system emphasizes the cooperative and collaborative roles of the participants in improving curriculum, instruction, supervision and administration elements of the physical education program. Figure 1 identifies the sources and integration of knowledge in a planned process of school-based "professional scholarship" directed at achieving collective participation in and teacher ownership of program design, development and implementation. This model departs dramatically from the more common Dissociative Action Model displayed in Figure 2 which provides only limited opportunity for cooperative involvement (teachers doing their "own thing"). This model is normally characterized by short-term interactions between and among teachers, administrators and other educational resource personnel.

Consequently, the overarching goal of the project was directly related to the "professional scholarship" process and in attaining teacher ownership of the program. Essentially, our aim was to build trust and mutual support in achieving this goal and over time to shift the responsibility from program design, development, and implementation away from the university consultant and toward the teaching and administrative staff who would gradually and with confidence assume that responsibility. Although we began with a seven-person Steering Committee, project tasks were consistently directed toward facilitating voluntary teacher involvement and always included periodic progress meetings with the entire staff.

With this process goal in mind, the project was actually launched in September of 1984 with a curriculum design and development manual which was designed and developed to serve as a kind of curriculum blueprint. The manual set out a number of discrete tasks and a curriculum training component designed to ensure a systematic approach that would achieve continuity in a well-articulated curriculum (K-12) document. A Tylerian model was utilized to structure and define the curricular format and the Project Steering Committee assumed shared responsibility as turnkey trainers for their colleagues.

Two substantive project goals were identified as central to the program assistance and staff development project. The first goal as mentioned was to design and develop a functional curriculum (K-12) for the students in the school district. The second and related goal was to implement, as faithfully as possible, content and meaning of the curriculum in the daily instructional practice of teachers across the district. Concern for these two important program variables was based on two important assumptions:

1. that quality curricula and effective instruction too often occur independently in an on-going program, and thusly separated, do not adequately serve the students in a school district as they pass from one school to another and from one teacher to another.
2. that a design and development process which interfaces and commonly understood and coherent curricular structure; that is, a clear district-wide understanding and application of instructional design principles is a major factor in program quality.

During the curriculum design and development portion of the project, a teaching effectiveness training manual was developed. The concepts and materials included were based on research findings and information from a variety of sources relating to *s*port and *m*ovement *a*pplied *r*esearch on *t*eaching and *p*edagogy *e*lements; SMART PE sources. The material was organized in the form of Teaching Effectiveness Action Modules and was designed to address important aspects of teacher performance. Table 1 lists the action modules that were developed. These materials were tied to the development of elementary and secondary teaching manuals comprised of teacher instructional plans (TIPS) that the teachers had produced and that were cross-referenced to the instructional strands in the curriculum. Of course the idea was to get the teachers to use this SMART-PE knowledge in the implementation of the curriculum through effective instructional strategies. Table 2 provides an overview of the development of the project and the major components which were planned and achieved as well as those that are in process.

Over the six-year collaboration period, the staff has completed work on the following documents and are using them in their daily work as teachers:

1. A completed K-12 curriculum including goals, target grade level objectives, delineation of the scope and sequence of content and assessment and student evaluation. The document is quite

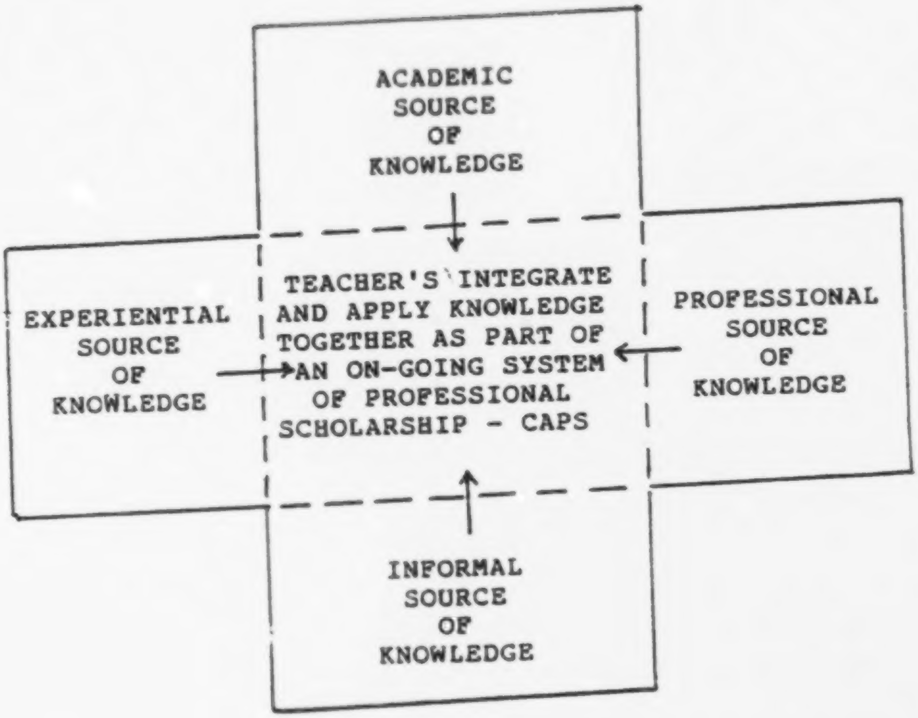
ACADEMIC SOURCE OF KNOWLEDGE
EXPERIENTIAL SOURCE OF KNOWLEDGE
TEACHER'S INTEGRATE AND APPLY KNOWLEDGE TOGETHER AS PART OF AN ON-GOING SYSTEM OF PROFESSIONAL SCHOLARSHIP - CAPS
PROFESSIONAL SOURCE OF KNOWLEDGE
INFORMAL SOURCE OF KNOWLEDGE

FIGURE 1. ASSOCIATIVE INSERVICE MODEL

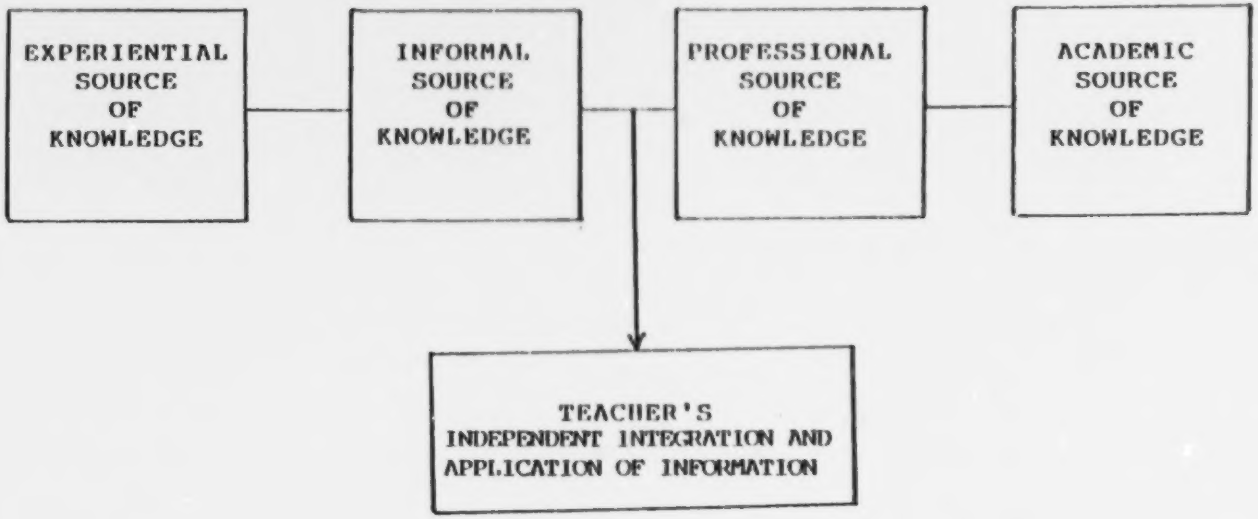
EXPERIENTIAL SOURCE OF KNOWLEDGE
INFORMAL SOURCE OF KNOWLEDGE
PROFESSIONAL SOURCE OF KNOWLEDGE
ACADEMIC SOURCE OF KNOWLEDGE
TEACHER'S INDEPENDENT INTEGRATION AND APPLICATION OF INFORMATION

Figure 2 - DISSOCIATIVE INSERVICE MODEL

Table 1

Teaching Effectiveness Action Models (Teams)

TEAM

1. Academic Learning Time in Physical Education, ALT-PE (Quality & Quantity).
2. Feedback and Specificity of Instruction (Quality and Quantity).
3. Accurate Movement Prescriptions and Movement Analysis.
4. Student Behavior Control and Management.
5. Verbal and Non-Verbal Interaction.
6. Student Self-Development and Social Consciousness.
7. Extended Teacher Influence.

specific and runs approximately 250 pages in length.

2. An Elementary and Secondary Teaching Manual cross-referenced to the K-12 curriculum. These manuals are comprised of sequenced Teacher Instructional Plans that provide teachers with alternative instructional approaches to achieving objectives specified in the curriculum. These volumes, each approximately 500 pages in length, provide teachers with a wealth of instructional planning information.

In addition, the following initiatives have been taken by the professional staff:

1. Publication of a monthly department newsletter.
2. Inter-staff visitation and exchange program.
3. Two state convention presentations and a recent workshop for 150 teachers from 20 neighboring school districts.
4. Development of on-going staff-planned and directed in-service workshops.
5. Continued development of INSTEP.
6. A recent review and revision of the K-12 curriculum as part of a five-year review process in the district.

During the Fall of 1990 the staff and administrators were asked to identify the payoffs or benefits of the program assistance and staff development project.

Payoffs from the teachers point of view were:

1. Growth of professionalism
2. Renewed focus on learning
3. Existence of new programs and ideas
4. Positive impact on new staff members
5. Cohesiveness of faculty
6. Teachers assuming more responsibilities
7. Curriculum serving as a role model
8. Development of mutual respect and admiration through the collaboration process

The administrators identified the following as the major benefits.

1. Improvement in teaching techniques and methods by the entire staff.
2. Consistency in subject matter throughout the district.
3. Renewed sense of pride in being a physical educator.
4. The respect of peers due to the accomplishments of curriculum work.
5. The closeness of staff members due to a common cause.
6. A return of enthusiasm to many teachers, especially those who are veteran teachers.
7. The knowledge by staff members that the department is so much further advanced than other subject areas (i.e., the use of physical education materials for other curriculum areas: English, Science).
8. Many staff members take pride in their appearance both physically and in the manner of dress.
9. There is a sharing of ideas and equipment throughout the district.
10. Creation of a staff newsletter.
11. A willingness to help each other with anything.

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Table 2

Niagara Falls School District Program Assistance and Staff Development Project

	Fall	Winter	Spring-Summer
1984	Commitment to Project Collaboration	Curriculum Design Training	Curriculum Development Training
1985	Elementary Curriculum Design and Development		Elementary Curriculum Completed
1986	Secondary Curriculum Design	Secondary Curriculum Development (Teacher directed)	Secondary Curriculum Completed
	Elementary Teaching Manual Design	Elementary Teaching Manual Development (Teacher directed)	Elementary Teaching Manual Completed
1987	Secondary Teaching Manual Design	Secondary Teaching Manual Development (Teacher directed)	Secondary Teaching Manual Completed
1988	Design Inservice Teaching Effectiveness Program (INSTEP)	INSTEP Training for Steering Committee ---------→	
1989	Extend INSTEP to All Teachers---------→ (Teacher directed)		
1990	Curriculum Review (5 year mandated Review)---------→ (Teacher directed)		
1991	Revised Curriculum and Teacher Development Initiatives (Teacher directed)		

Is the Niagara Falls School District Physical Education program really better? We think it is better! The teachers in the district certainly can't be accused of sending in a quick fix, to the 1983 curriculum directive; that's obvious. Good work takes time, and time was certainly given by many fine teachers. The fact that so many school districts have reviewed and used the Niagara Falls Project outcomes for their own work says something special about its quality. It is not perfect, certainly nothing is, but it is for sure an accurate representation of the collective ideas and scholarship of hard-working teachers.

Some of the evidence gathered from the project to date suggests improvements in student performance in many areas and this is genuinely important. But what is really much more impressive at this date is that the physical education professionals in the Niagara Falls School District understand much more clearly, which specific student outcomes comprise *their* curriculum for all children across the district, where the outcomes are addressed and how they will determine student learning gain. This clarity of purpose, focus and accountability is imperative if the theories related to achieving curriculum and instructional excellence are to be translated into the "functional curriculum" of our school physical education programs.

When I entered into a working relationship with my Niagara Falls colleagues in 1984, I could not know how it would all "turn out." This is "risky business" you know, especially flying to Buffalo on some thirty-five occasions over five years, often in the winter months. But shared experience over time builds mutual trust, respect, risk-taking and commitment among people, especially in collaborative efforts between college professors and teachers. We believe that this project has "turned out" okay. What the teachers have put on paper and translated into action has made a difference in gymnasiums and playing fields across the district. And, I am confident that positive changes will continue to occur, because I know that "professional scholarship" is alive and well in Niagara Falls. I look forward to maintaining and enhancing both the personal and professional relationship we have built together.

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Project Scope: An Urban Partnership Venture--Descriptions and Predictions

Linda A. Catelli and Wanda Nix

Introduction

School-university/college partnerships have gained significant recognition by leading educational associations while simultaneously managing to capture the attention of university presidents. The collaborative work initiated years ago by a relatively small number of educators is now recognized as a respectable route for improving education and for meeting the mandates of educational reform in the United States. There is no doubt that school-college collaboration is a strong and growing movement in education, and it is also a growing and necessary movement in physical education.

This paper focuses on an urban-college partnership started at Queens College entitled Project SCOPE, *S*chool-*C*ollege *O*peration in *P*hysical *E*ducation. The specific purpose is three-fold. First, it is to provide a general description of the eleven-year SCOPE Project identifying the conceptual framework for the project along with a brief overview of the types of collaborative activities and action-research studies conducted over the years. Second, it is to describe the role research plays in achieving the goals of the project and to present selected impressions of the partnership from the practitioners' perspective. Third, it is to put forth some general predictions about the future of school-college partnerships. Our overall goal is to provide a clear view of Project SCOPE--what we are attempting to achieve with the project, what we are promoting for the field of physical education, and the role research plays in achieving our agenda goals.

Overview and History of Project SCOPE

In 1979, the Department of Health and Physical Education at Queens College, under the direction of a faculty member, initiated a project that would involve practitioners in a collaborative model for the pedagogical component of the department's newly approved Competency-Based Teacher Education Program. Concurrent with this event, Queens College administrators took steps, along with the New York City Board of Education, to officially form a "partnership" for the expressed purpose of starting and sustaining a magnet middle school, the Louis Armstrong Middle School, for inner-city youngsters. The overall intent of the project was to bring together teachers, administrators, college professors and parents to work collaboratively on developing an innovative school curriculum for inner-city youngsters and also to develop quality teacher education programs. Thus, in 1979, this formal contractual arrangement provided an inpetus toward further development of school-college collaboration in physical education.[1]

The director of the project in physical education joined the newly formed partnership with the Louis Armstrong School and decided to expand the Department's existing operations with other schools and practitioners. A more comprehensive plan for a school-college partnership venture in physical education emerged. Thus, the partnership project in physical education included practitioners from other schools in the New York City area as well as from the Louis Armstrong School.

In 1980, the conceptual framework for what is now referred to as Project SCOPE was developed. The conceptual framework for SCOPE illustrated in Figure 1 is a "dynamic triad" of three educational components (A,B,C). The conceptual framework is based on three seemingly simple but operationally complex assumptions from which project activities were and are designed. The three assumptions are:

1. That closer linkages among and eventual fusion of the major components will result in improving education at all levels.
2. That the quality and effectiveness of a teacher education program is dependent on its meaningful connection to schools and educational practice.
3. That the development of teaching as a profession and its knowledge base is best served by a more "organic" (Schlechty and Whitford, 1988) and participatory relationship among schools and college personnel.

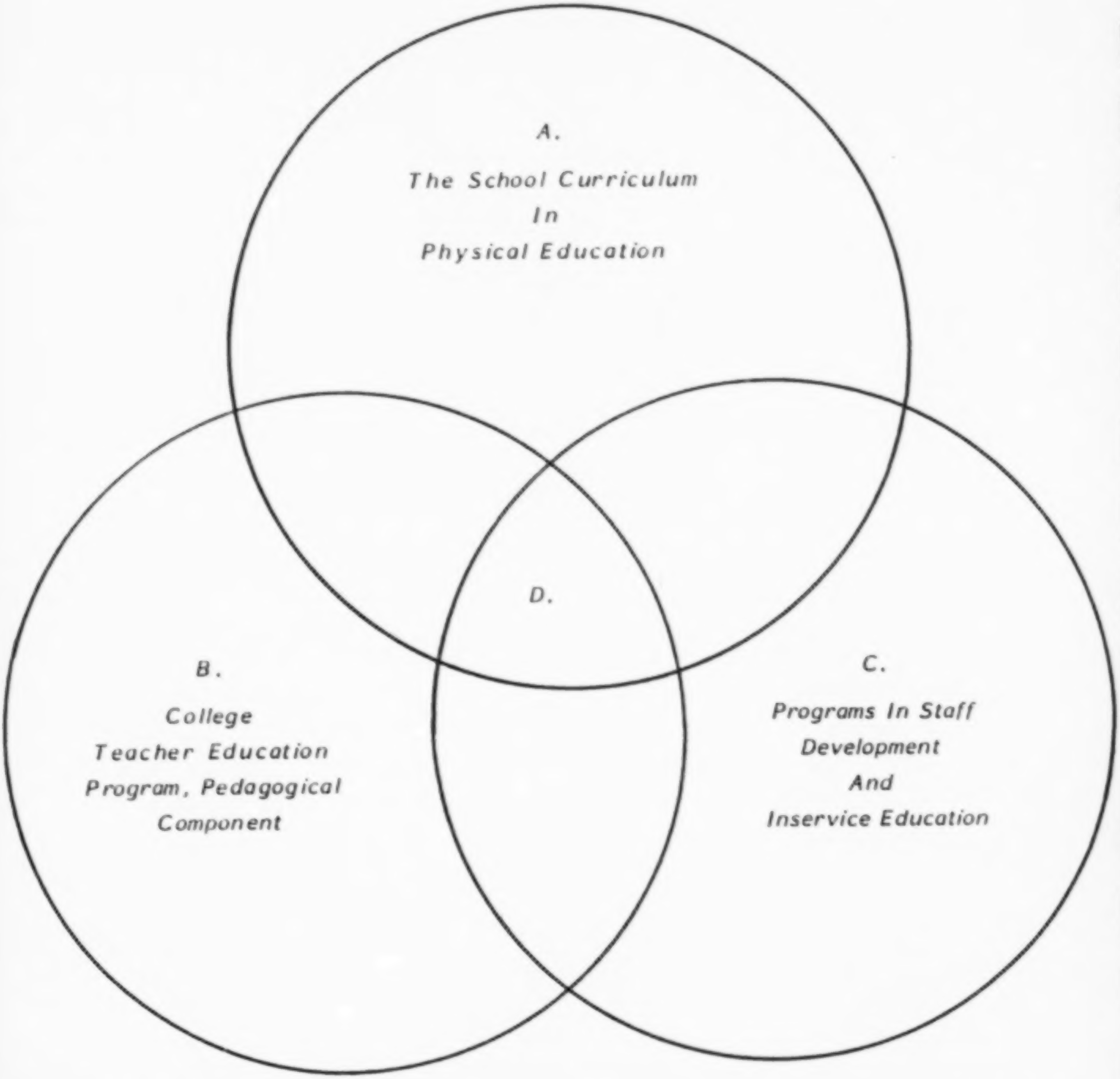
These three assumptions constitute the agenda goals for Project SCOPE and they serve as the guiding constructs for all collaborative activities and action-research projects designed since 1980. The process is moving toward "fusing" the programs, while revitalizing and improving physical education on all levels for teachers and students and contributing to the advancement of knowledge in the field.

FIGURE I

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK FOR PROJECT SCOPE

School-College Operation In Physical Education

Dynamic Triad


A.
The School Curriculum
In
Physical Education
D.
B.
College
Teacher Education
Program, Pedagogical
Component
C.
Programs In Staff
Development
And
Inservice Education

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The conceptual framework presented is a "triad" in the sense that each component is dependent on the others to achieve the overall agenda goals of SCOPE. It is "dynamic" in the sense that the relationship among and between components is constantly changing. The body of knowledge in each component changes, people change, developmental career stages change, and activities in each component change. Also, the life of the partnership itself presents changes over time. The point at which the components intersect "D" represents the area in which programs and personnel are fused or joined together in specific project activities, thus serving the ultimate goals of SCOPE.

At present there are fifteen practitioners who are members of Project SCOPE. The practitioners represent seven public and private schools in New York City and areas surrounding the city. During the eleven years of the project, SCOPE practitioners have assumed an active role in reshaping and implementing the Pedagogical Component of the Teacher Education Program. All practitioners of the project were trained in aspects of the program and then hired by the Department as adjunct instructors to 1) teach education courses; 2) supervise student teachers; 3) conduct after-school seminars for the student teachers; and 4) assist in the early clinical field experiences for preservice students. The practitioners of SCOPE engage in a working seminar once a month at the college to review and revise competencies of the programs; and they periodically enroll in a special inservice graduate course specifically designed to update their skills and knowledge in the areas of supervision, teacher education and teaching physical education. As a group, the practitioners believe in shared decision-making and we, as a combined school-college team of physical educators, are working toward joint ownership of the teacher education program.

With regard to staff development and school curriculum, the work with the Louis Armstrong School practitioners has been more extensive than with other SCOPE schools. This is due to the college's financial arrangement with the New York City Board of Education enabling the director of the project to be at the school one full day a week for the school year. This partnership project which includes many other subject area representatives has been meritoriously cited in three Carnegie Foundation Reports.[2] Four years after the school opened, it was designated by the U.S. Department of Education as one of the nation's outstanding schools for excellence in education. The partnership has been a successful venture for the two institutions; and it has been successful for the area of physical education.

Within the eleven years of Project SCOPE, there have been over twenty collaborative products that have impacted the component areas (A,B,C,D) of the conceptual framework and goals of SCOPE. Our accomplishments and achievements have included:

1. The formal training participation and hiring of thirteen SCOPE practitioners from seven schools for the instruction and improvement of courses included in the Pedagogical Component of the Teacher Education Program have enormously enhanced the quality of the program.

2. The development and implementation of an undergraduate preservice education course entitled "Orientation to Teaching," team taught by school-college personnel, was initiated at a SCOPE affiliated school.

3. The design and implementation of activity workshops and summer workshops for the development of curriculum skills for practitioners was inaugurated.

4. The development and use of a SCOPE assessment tool and procedure for evaluating competency performances of student teachers has improved the student teaching experience.

5. The active participation of SCOPE practitioners in action-research studies continues.

6. The development of inservice graduate courses and working seminars for SCOPE practitioners is on-going.

7. The implementation of early clinical field experiences at SCOPE schools for preservice students conducted by SCOPE practitioners is now a practice.

8. The development of a comprehensive curriculum model for the Louis Armstrong Middle School has taken place. Currently, the school has 1400 students with 65 different ethnic groups represented in its student body. The curriculum is directed at investigating and responding to the needs of inner-city youngsters.[3]

9. A significant reduction in class size and teacher-pupil ratio at the a SCOPE affiliated school was achieved. This was a monumental step forward for teaching physical education in New York City. Urban-school physical education programs often suffer from low status, large classes, limited facilities, and inappropriate scheduling. Having faced some of these problems, it took the school-college team many years of written and verbal proposals to gain the administrative support necessary to reduce class size and institute a quality instructional program.

SCOPE is a long-term project, unique in that it is one of a few school-college partnerships in the nation that takes a comprehensive and "holistic" approach to improving education.[4] SCOPE is a multi-faceted system that seeks to impact, coordinate and tie together teacher education, staff development, inservice training, and school curriculum in physical education.

The Role of Research

Research is an important aspect of this collaboration; however, the nature and extent of this research has changed, and will continue to change, over the life of the project. Initially research played a secondary role. The strategy for SCOPE was to first set in place a solid and healthy working relationship between SCOPE practitioners and the director and then among the SCOPE members with one another. This phase of the project took a long period of time and involved many hours of quality interactions with practitioners in their settings and at the college. Premature advancement to another phase involving research would have threatened these relationships and was neither necessary nor appropriate to our goals at the time. Also, an emphasis on research would have been viewed by practitioners as another case of a college professor coming in to collect data for a study that would probably benefit the professor's academic career but not significantly benefit the teachers' on-going work with students.

Project SCOPE is a reconceptualization of an education system, seeking major changes in institutional relationships and in the structure of programs at all levels. Therefore, it was not in our best interest to make research the dominant activity at that time. Whatever research studies were engaged in would have to be compatible with the emerging needs of practitioners in relation to any one of the three educational components and the goals of SCOPE.

The few research projects that were conducted were process-related, field-oriented, problem-centered and best categorized as action-research endeavors impacting the major component areas of SCOPE. The findings or results from such studies are of interest first to the participants of SCOPE and secondarily to the larger education community. As Kenneth Sirotnik (1988) has suggested, this type of endeavor may be more appropriately termed "collaborative inquiry," denoting "...a process of self-study--of generating and acting upon knowledge, in context, by and for the people who use it." (p. 169).

Thus, the information generated by a SCOPE study may alter a teacher's instructional practices, or it may impact the procedures employed by SCOPE supervisors with student teachers, or it may provide direction for units of instruction for a school's curriculum, or it may provide information to persuade school administrators to change scheduling practices in physical education. For example: At the Louis Armstrong School the physical education faculty and the director of SCOPE are currently engaged in two action-research studies. One of the studies is longitudinal and is aimed at identifying individual and group changes in health-related fitness performances of our student population. We have collected fitness scores since 1987 and as of May 1991, we will have the first set of data that follows a group of 5th grade boys and girls through to the 8th grade. The resulting analysis will provide us with specific information about the health-fitness needs and status of the Louis Armstrong students. Primarily, the information will be used to develop relevant and realistic units of instruction based upon the needs of the students, and secondarily it will contribute to the growing literature on inner-city middle school populations. Also, this information will be used in meetings with our school-based management team to justify the need for increasing and/or re-scheduling classes of physical education.

Practitioners who serve as student teacher supervisors are involved in a SCOPE project entitled "Changing the Triad of Roles of Personnel Involved in Student Teaching." One aspect of the project is a study that seeks to identify initial problems, perceptions, and concerns of these practitioners who have now changed their role from that of a cooperating teacher to a college supervisor. The resulting information will be used primarily to design seminars, training sessions and materials that target the practitioners' needs in their new roles. Secondarily, the information may be useful in assisting others who may want to attempt a cooperative model of supervision.

Another study SCOPE supervisors are completing involves the use and effects of goal-setting procedures and videotape analysis to improve instructional performances of student teachers. Student teachers, along with their SCOPE supervisors, code and analyze their videotaped lessons with descriptive systems once in the beginning and again at the end of the semester. Percent occurrences indicating the amount of time student teachers engage in selected instructional behaviors in relation to specific goals set are obtained along with percent occurrences of pupil behavior for the same lessons. Student teacher performances are monitored during the semester toward more desirable instructional behaviors, and behavioral changes are noted at the end of the semester. The findings of this study will significantly impact the supervisory procedures employed with student teachers. Also the information generated by this study will assist in revising course content and competencies of the Teacher Education Program. Thus research has been a vehicle for obtaining information focused directly on our own needs and a tool enabling us to systematically approach our agenda goals.

In the future, research should play a very different role. SCOPE's third agenda goal seeks to contribute to the development of the profession of teaching physical education and its knowledge base via participation of school and college personnel. This requires the conduct of research for a different purpose and at a level subject to different rules, procedures and norms. It requires more of an expressed commitment by members of SCOPE and necessitates the commitment and support of the college's administrators. A proposal has been submitted to the administrators for altering the infrastructure of the teacher education program. This proposal includes a plan for hiring two additional faculty members to work as a team along with the practitioners of SCOPE for:

1. the further development and conduct of innovative programs in professional education and staff development;
2. the continued improvement and revitalization of curriculum and teaching in physical education K-12; and
3. the design and implementation of an expanded research agenda.

The research emphasis of this school-college team would be field-centered, field-generated and directed at contributing to the development of middle-range theories (see Goodlad, 1986; Shulman, 1986) for the profession of teaching physical education. In essence, the programs and research conducted by this group should impact educational practice and contribute to the advancement of knowledge for the teaching of physical education. If accepted and implemented, this plan would advance Project SCOPE to a phase where research would clearly play a different role. Until additional support is forthcoming, however, we will continue to engage in action-research projects that primarily serve our needs and concerns.

The Practitioners' Perspective

Practitioners involved with SCOPE have found their experiences to be both meaningful and valuable for a variety of personal and professional reasons. The fact that original members have remained with the project over the eleven years and that practitioners who joined later have chosen to sustain their membership attests to the success of the project. As a group, SCOPE practitioners have established very close and warm collegial relationships. They provide support for one another in their efforts to improve the quality of their programs and the quality of their own professional lives.

As commented by a SCOPE practitioner, from the Townsend Harris High School, participation in Project SCOPE has contributed significantly to the school's physical education curriculum. Specific effects that result from affiliation with Project SCOPE may be categorized under the headings of 1) professional growth and 2) program improvement. Cited below, from the practitioners' viewpoint, are four of the benefits and effects that have resulted from participation in the partnership.

1. Professional rejuvenation as a result of affiliation with student teachers and other SCOPE practitioners.
2. Development of an expanded knowledge base in teaching which can be used in daily operations.
3. Closer examination of our teaching, leading to improved performances
4. A sense of ownership in the College's Teacher Education Program that has engendered a true sense of empowerment.

With respect to program improvement and its effect on the student the following observations are made:

1. The presence of the student teachers encouraged the staff to provide the best possible learning environment for our students.
2. Teacher reflection was made a part of every lesson.
3. Student teachers assigned to the school permitted smaller pupil-teacher ratios in classes.
4. Student teachers introduced new ideas for the activities of the program.

The Future of School-University Partnerships

There is no doubt that in the next decade or two we will see a proliferation of school-university partnerships. As in the past, some will focus solely on preservice education, some on inservice education and staff development and some will concentrate their efforts on program development in schools and research. Many will probably be successful for the specific purpose they identify; but few will be long-lasting and seriously tackle major educational reforms--reforms directed at integrating and improving education at all levels. Again, what Project SCOPE promotes is a major reconceptualization of an education system. We are attempting to change the structure of school and college programs and redefine the relationship between these two institutions for the purpose of improving education.

If we are to meet this challenge and survive, especially those of us in the profession of physical education, the work ahead details and necessitates a more encompassing, comprehensive and holistic approach to partnerships. It requires an approach that targets the areas of teacher education, staff development, and school curriculum and then connects them in ways that are meaningful, creative and productive. It necessitates an approach, as Richard Arend (1990) so strongly suggests, that links the content and the personnel of these components areas in a reciprocal system that fosters life-long learning, renewal and research. (pgs. 134-41)

If these component areas on the education continuum stay separated from one another, we see no fundamental nor substantial change on the horizon for education. We see no significant change from the way we have operated in the past. If these areas remain disjointed, we will again be doomed to yet another period in education where quick remedies, projects, and reform initiatives flood the literature and yet no fundamental change nor substantive improvement is realized.

We recognize the enormity of the task we have identified and we are not foolish enough to think that institutions of higher education will easily, if at all, support these efforts or rally around this cause. The surrounding issues at every level are extremely complex, further complicated by a current economic recession. We also recognize that this type of endeavor cannot be successful, devoid of the cooperation and willingness of state education departments to put forth certification requirements and regulations that facilitate these efforts rather than contradict them.

Optimism does not always run high with this type of partnership venture. If we mean what we say this time, however, we need to at least head in a direction that is more compatible without stated reform goals and ideals. With Project SCOPE, we have by no means arrived at the desired goals. We recognize and agree with Goodlad and Sirotnik (1988) that a partnership of this nature is a kind of long-term social experiment. It is an evolving process where change is slow. We have been around for eleven years, however, and we have managed to make major changes. That, in and of itself is encouraging.

Reference Notes

1. For an in-depth explanation and an analysis of the Queens College-Louis Armstrong School Partnership see Catelli, 1989; 1990a.
2. The three Carnegie Foundation Reports in which the Louis Armstrong Middle School and the partnership project with Queens College was given notable mention are: *School and College* by Gene Maeroff; *High School* by Ernest Boyer; and *Turning Point: Preparing American Youth for the 21st Century by the Carnegie Council on Adolescent Development.*
3. A working model for the curriculum was published in the March 1990 issue of the *Middle School Journal.*
4. See Catelli (1991) for an explanation of SCOPE's "holistic" approach to a partnership.

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Inviting Collaboration in Teacher Education

Rick Bell

In her forward to the JTPE special monograph on collaboration for instructional improvement, Mary Futrell, president of NEA, proposes a restructuring of K-12 schools in order to develop new relationships between teachers, teacher educators, and researchers. Although I applaud this message, if this restructuring were to occur I suggest that these new relationships still may not develop to the extent we would like without a concurrent restructuring of the teacher education programs within our universities.

The teachers, administrators, parents, and children in the K-12 schools within the province of British Columbia are in the midst of an educational revolution. The Ministry of Education has proposed a new framework for learning which calls for a fundamental restructuring of schools. Although these changes were not driven by what Mary Futrell labeled as the culture of cooperation among members of the educational community, the new framework has prompted some introspection by teacher educators at the University of Victoria on how to nurture collaboration between teacher educators, practitioners, and preservice teachers.

I would like to share with you some ideas that are being presented to our faculty which hopefully will provide more opportunities for university personnel and classroom practitioners to interact and share common concerns and interests while at the same time develop within our preservice teachers a bit more of the reflective spirit which will guide the collaborative process. I do so not with the intent of thinking we have the ideal teacher preparation program or solutions to the problems associated with collaboration but rather as an invitation to those of you who may have ventured down some of those paths to assist us with ideas concerning implementation of our program and as an invitation to others to begin deliberations if the structures to encourage and reward collaboration are not present in your institutions.

The Status Quo

The University Faculty and Teacher Education

Currently, sessional appointments are responsible for approximately 52% of the undergraduate courses. Full-time faculty supervise approximately 27% of the units allocated for student teaching practice. The former figure is increasing while the latter is decreasing. Although this trend may be applauded by some, these figures do suggest that many full-time faculty within our institution are becoming less and less involved with undergraduate teacher preparation. Teacher education faculty particularly in the secondary program are disgruntled with the lack of a coordinated program. Only a small minority of faculty are conducting research within the schools. The common perception is that the reward structures that are in place within the university do not encourage faculty to become involved in collaborative experiences with practitioners. In fact, the traditional reward structures seem to do the exact opposite. They promote isolation and the production of erudite research.

The Preservice Program

The existing teacher preparation program is basically the same program that was developed thirty years ago. The secondary program, with which I am involved, is simply a collection of independent courses with limited or no collaboration between faculty/staff and limited collaboration with practicing teachers. Most courses have no connection with schools. The result is that preservice teachers participate in a program that has by design minimized or simply prohibited meaningful collaboration between faculty members, between faculty and practitioners, and between preservice teachers and practitioners. If collaboration is desired, then preservice teachers must participate in programs that model collaboration and develop in these teachers the requisite skills to successfully enter into collaborative ventures.

The Practitioners

With a few exceptions, the secondary physical educators at least in the city of Victoria appear to fit many of the descriptions of our literature. They suffer from isolation. They work within traditional organizational structures which do not promote sharing. There is very little evidence to suggest that there is any degree of accountability for teaching practices and no forum established to promote the exchange of ideas about teaching.

The Proposal

I want to limit this paper to a description of the secondary teacher preparation program although similar recommendations are being made for the elementary program. I should also indicate that the proposed program is the product of a three-year analysis of the teacher preparation programs at our institution. The administration has been most supportive of this process by providing funds for faculty retreats, the development and analysis of program questionnaires, and release time for a small group of teacher educators to develop the proposed new program.

Assumptions of the Proposed Program

The proposed program was based on the following assumptions:

1. That there is a need to increase the opportunities for integration on many levels (e.g., between courses, between theory and practice).
2. That there is a need to increase the number and type of field experiences.
3. That there is a need to increase the opportunities for reflection by preservice teachers in partnership with practitioners, faculty, and peers.

The Proposed Program

Like some teacher preparation programs in the United States, our program is reverting to a post degree professional program consisting of three semesters: a prepracticum semester which includes the methodological courses, a practicum semester which includes an extended practicum of thirteen weeks, and a postpracticum semester which includes some reflective courses. For students in physical education, this will be their professional year of studies.

The Major Changes to Enhance Collaboration

The proposed program is intended to encourage collaboration among faculty, practitioners, and preservice teachers.

1. Increased opportunities for collaboration among faculty.

Rather than continue the practice of assigning units to individual courses, the new program is based on larger blocks of units which will be developed by faculty from different departments. For example, the educational psychology faculty will be collaborating with the pedagogy faculty; the methods faculty will be collaborating with the measurement and evaluation faculty; and the foundations faculty will be collaborating with the administration faculty. Release time is being provided by the dean to ensure that time is not a deterrent in the collaborative process.

2. Increased opportunities for collaboration between students and practitioners.

Some of the courses that were traditionally taught on campus have school experiences assigned as part of the course design. These courses include applied principles of teaching and learning, methods and evaluation, and the workshops. A major portion of the latter course will be done in schools during the practicum semester and deal with on-site issues such as availability and use of media, cooperative learning, and safety.

The British Columbia Teachers' Federation (BCTF) is endorsing the notion of an induction program as a strategy to increase teacher retention, to improve professional practice of beginning teachers, and to bring positive changes to public education. The federation wants to implement a formal mentor/tutor model of induction which is based upon collaboration, critical reflection on teaching practice, and open communication. This induction program is also a major concern for our department of professional studies within the faculty of education and will necessitate collaboration with the BCTF.

3. Increased opportunity for collaboration between faculty, practitioners, and students.

The student teaching practicum is extended over thirteen weeks. Student teachers will be sent out in pods according to subject specialization in order to accommodate specialist supervision. For example those student teachers who have physical education as an area of specialization will be located in pods throughout the province. There is a new student teaching seminar which will be based in schools and lead by sponsor teachers. Faculty supervisors will serve as facilitators. Topics for these seminars will be student driven for the most part but will also include topics from sponsors and supervisors. The seminars are intended to promote dialogue about teaching but the dialogue is directly related to the world of the student teacher.

4. Increased opportunities for collaboration among students.

Major assignments for course work, preparation for practica, workshops, and the student teaching seminar will encourage small and large group work. It is intended that by collaborating with fellow students during the preservice program that there will be greater likelihood for collaboration during inservice years.

5. Increased opportunities for collaboration among practitioners.

The traditional assignment of one student teacher to one sponsor teacher is being changed to a concept of sponsor schools. With this reconceptualization, an entire staff or a group of interested teachers would assume collective responsibility for student teachers assigned to their schools. This would enhance the possibilities for a broader and more diverse set of experiences for student teachers plus it would capitalize on the collective wisdom of the staff. This will necessitate some restructuring of timetables within schools so that teachers have time to coordinate experiences within the school. This proposal is strongly endorsed by the BCTF and also reflects the spirt of Mary Futrell's message in JTPE.

6. Increased opportunitites for collaboration between faculty and practitioners.

With the increased demand for teachers and the corresponding freeze on new faculty appointments, there is pressure to utilize practitioners as faculty associates and term lecturers. As more and more practitioners become involved in campus responsibilities so do the opportunities for collaboration with faculty on common issues. The faculty are currently examining the possibility of assigning to these associates some research responsibilities in the form of action research.

7. Increase opportunitites to develop the reflective practitioner.

In addition to the changes already described which will encourage reflection on teaching practices, there is a new seminar in the postpracticum semester that focuses, in part, on action research. There is consensus among our program committee that if we expect practitioners to understand and to some extent become involved in action research then there will be a greater likelihood of this happening if we provide preservice teachers with some rudimentary research skills prior to graduation. The details of this seminar are yet to be developed but there are a few institutions that have similar courses. I would be most anxious to talk with any people who have such a course in their undergraduate program.

A second method to encourage reflection is to provide preservice teachers with more opportunities to analyze and reflect upon teaching. I am most excited about the role of interactive video in this process and feel this technology will be a major influence in future teacher preparation.

Conclusion

The proposed teacher preparation program is designed to encourage what this conference is all about. Teacher preparation programs must reflect the changes espoused by Mary Futrell if collaboration is to continue to occur. Without the collaborative model in the preservice years, collaboration during the inservice years will continue to be most difficult. Teachers need to have the communication skills to engage in professional dialogue to improve pedagogical decision-making for the benefit of our students.

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Section 4. Meeting the Challenges: International Perspectives

Building a Bridge through Teamwork -- A Korean Case

Sinbok Kang

One of the most difficult problems that continuously plague professionals in education is that of relating theory/research and practice. It has been acknowledged in the field of education that the findings from research on teaching has rarely influenced the practice of teaching in schools. What teachers teach and the ways in which they teach amazingly remain in the same manner as when the unscientific understanding of teaching prevailed. Even the effect of preservice teacher education programs developed on the basis of research on teaching is washed out by the inservice experiences in school settings (Zeichner & Tabachnick, 1981). The theory does not work well in the real world of practice: teachers have come to distrust the "should dos" derived from research findings. Likewise the researchers have not payed sincere attention to what teachers actually do for teaching and for improving it, criticizing their approaches as unsystematic. A big gulf has been developed between the continents of research and practice in education.

The field of physical education is no exception in this regard. Content and methods of instruction taught by physical education teachers in school settings do not reflect the outcomes from research on teaching in physical education on the one hand. Researchers have hardly attempted to develop a "grounded theory" based on real school practices on the other (Sparks, 1986). Consequently, both practitioners and researchers in physical education have functioned independently of each other (Schempp & Martinek, 1988). The factors that contribute to such a noticeable gap between research and practice in physical education teaching may be summarized as follows: 1) many researchers are out of touch with current school practices and they tend to ignore what goes on in the gym; 2) there is too much emphasis on the development of theory itself and researchers have produced theories that simply do not provide much help for teachers when it comes to actual application in playground settings; and 3) practitioners are not willing to be consumers of research that is provided by researchers because of the inapplicability of most research findings (Anderson & Barrette, 1978; Tinning, 1987). The purpose of this paper is to briefly describe what is considered to be a representative example of the effort for collaboration among researchers, practitioners, and administrators in Korea.

An Attempt to Solve the Problem in Korea

In the Korean school physical education system, the collaboration efforts are mainly mediated through inservice programs. Those are inservice programs that are necessary for salary increase and promotion to the position of first rank full-time teacher, and two compulsory inservice programs without special benefit -- a general training and a special training. The inservice programs have been criticized because the contents are limited in specific areas and because they are superficial and out-of-date. The inservice programs have failed to satisfy participants' expectations since the contents are not closely related to current school practices. The examples of participants comments are, for example, "The instructor has been out of touch with secondary schools for several years" or "The instructor has not paid attention to the actual problems of physical education teachers and has not provided solutions of imminent problems." In contrast, university professors have shown the prevalent attitude that many physical education teachers use their time in areas not related to academic learning. Such differences in their attitude toward each other can be attributed to lack of mutual understanding and collaboration between researching professors and practicing teachers.

However, an attempt to improve this situation has been conducted by a group of professors, doctoral students, teachers, and superintendents in Seoul. In an effort to provide a model for collaboration, I would like to describe the seminars operated by the Seoul National University - Physical Education Teaching and Learning Center (SNU-PETLC). The use of formal and informal seminars has been identified as effective in facilitating the collaboration efforts between them.

The Objectives

In 1988, a clinical laboratory of sport pedagogy was founded in the Department of Physical Education at Seoul National University. The laboratory was named the Seoul National University -- Physical Education Teaching Learning Center (SNU-PETLC). Through periodic seminar activities, the Center aims 1) to understand and discuss recent developments in equipment research in Korea and in sport pedagogy research conducted in different countries; and 2) to search for relevant ways to apply them to actual instructional settings of each participants' schools of school districts.

Participants

Participants of SNU-PETLC seminar activities consist of teacher educators, secondary school physical education teachers (many of them are doctoral students at Seoul National University), and superintendents of several school districts in Seoul. The average number of participants in each seminar is about thirty. The three groups of participants have been chosen since they have exerted significant impacts on improving the quality of school physical education programs, instruction, and student learning. Especially, since superintendents are responsible for supervising the task fulfillment of teachers, their background and personal philosophy of education and physical education are crucial for encouraging rational supervision of effective teaching. Therefore, cooperation among the three groups can contribute to the integration of research and practice.

Content and Process

The Center holds periodic meetings biweekly at Seoul National University. One seminar usually takes two or two and a half hours. It also holds special one-week long seminars during summer and winter vacations.

The seminar is operated by employing various approaches. First, the latest published books and important articles in sport pedagogy and general education are selected for a reading assignment, and one designated participant presents the main ideas of the reading. After the presentation, all participants discuss the reading material. University professors are expected 1) to discuss the implementation of theoretical concepts; 2) to note teachers' feedback about the possibility of implementation; and 3) to reconsider the methods of application to educational settings. For example, when the concepts of Cheffers' Adaptation of Flander's Interaction Analysis System (Cheffers & Mancini, 1989) and Academic Learning Time in Physical Education (Siedentop, Tousignant, & Parker, 1982) were introduced at the meeting participants actively interacted in understanding and applying those concepts. Although those concepts were unfamiliar to most school teachers, teachers in graduate programs volunteered to apply those concepts in their physical education classes. They soon received attention from principals and other teachers, and those concepts were welcomed.

Teachers and superintendents 1) are encouraged to understand and interpret the newly introduced concepts from their *own* perspectives; 2) indicate practical problems of application; and 3) suggest some possible alternatives. Before this kind of collaboration effort, professors only could report their study outcomes in journals or teach such concepts only as theory without application. Therefore, collaboration among the three groups can be enhanced and produce fruitful results by using this group discussion approach.

Second, the Center provides professional lectures for all participants in various areas related to teaching and learning in physical education. According to participants' demands, special lecturers are invited to the seminar and present information or research findings. Special lecturers of the seminars include principals, vice principals, superintendents, experienced teachers, professors from various subdisciplinary areas of physical education. Several famous professors from other countries have been invited and have presented their studies related to sport pedagogy. Participants in those seminars attempt 1) to provide detailed and comprehensive plans to narrow the large gap between practitioners and researchers; and 2) to discuss how to apply implications of the presentations of the lecturers.

Third, members of the Center are encouraged to participate in various periodic conferences that are related to sport pedagogy. At the next seminar session, all participants are then asked to present their opinions or summaries of the research findings.

Finally, a joint seminar between the Secondary and High School Physical Education Teachers' Federation and the Center is held to provide an opportunity for dialogue between two groups. The Center takes a leading role only in operating the seminar and reporting research findings or instructional theories. Topics such as support systems for successful collaboration and the teacher's role as equal collaborator are discussed. it is of interest that the Teachers' Union Action Research Contest and several professors express their support to the teachers in contributing their papers in the contest.

Assessment

Two procedures are usually adopted to evaluate the effects of the SNU-PETLC program on the collaboration between researchers and practitioners. First, participants of the seminar freely discuss among themselves their subjective opinions on the effectiveness of the program. Second, the director of the Center employs interviewing procedures to describe detailed participants' opinions of the program.

Analysis of the data from the evaluations that have been conducted so far indicates that the seminars of the Center have contributed in establishing collaboration efforts between researchers and practitioners. When participants of the program were asked how they learned to teach, most of the teachers reported that they learned it on their own by trial and error. They admitted that they had rarely engaged in activities whereby professional support for one another was provided; whereby instructional problems could be solved. They acknowledged the effectiveness of the program in reducing a gap between researchers and practitioners, and were able to gather invaluable information about instruction. The following comments by two school teachers who have participated in the seminars may vividly explain the usefulness of the program:

> During the induction phase, I had focused on what is necessary to keep my class under control and get my job done. Generally I established it on my own... However, now I realize that just participating in this kind of program could have reduced unnecessary waste of time. Anyway, I am glad that I could get so much practical information about instruction and student learning.

> I was not so interested in the program at the beginning. But when I wanted the participants to discuss practical instructional problems such as evaluation of student achievement, or effective use of small space for a large number of students, they showed their interests in providing solutions. We had some debate over the possible solutions. So I wanted to find out more appropriate answers by testing them in actual settings. I was surprised because so many participants including professors and superintendents were interested in supporting and providing appropriate study plans. And I was pleased by the fact that I could be a researcher.

Conclusion

The lack of mutual understanding and collaboration between schools and universities has contributed to a noticeable gap between practitioners and researchers in physical education. In Korea, collaboration in physical education teaching has not been prevalent, partly because it requires devotion of time and energy, and mutual communication among teachers, professors, and superintendents, and partly because it requires that schools, school districts, and universities share responsibility and authority.

The seminar program of the SNU-PETL Center is one example that has begun to bridge the gap between the practice and research in physical education teaching in Korea. The program aims to increase parity among teachers, professors and superintendents. It also aims to improve inservice education, to encourage action research among teachers and, most of all, to enculture the spirit of teamwork in all participants. The SNU-PETL Center will continue to be a conducive force to the collaboration efforts among physical education professionals in Korea.

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Collaborative Research and Professional Development in Physical Education: Preliminary Findings of Investigation into a Teacher Development Program in New Zealand

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The New Zealand Ministry of Education is responsible for the implementation of a national physical education curriculum for schools, from Early Childhood to senior Secondary level. While curriculum content and time allocation for physical education are prescribed nationally, inservice teacher development has been implemented and resourced regionally by Physical Education Advisers attached to Education Boards. Such implementation has varied in its nature and effectiveness.

Early in 1990, the Ministry of Education trialled new initiatives in teacher development, and called for contract proposals for the delivery of a national teacher development program in physical education. The successful proposers were a group of physical education professionals representing the six Colleges of Education in New Zealand, and led by the writer. The model of teacher development proposed was based on the findings of research conducted overseas. The program combined off-site courses, in-school support and collaborative efforts by teachers as researchers.

Three hundred teachers of physical education from Early Childhood Centers, and Primary and Secondary schools were invited to participate in the program nationally. Attention was paid to ensuring that these teachers represented a range of rural/urban, large/small, and single-sex/co-educational schools.

This paper addresses the nature of the program itself, describes the research design and methods of data collection, and presents some preliminary findings of research conducted with teachers involved in the program. The research addresses perceived changes in attitudes, values and behavior which were considered by the teachers to be direct consequences of their involvement in the program.

Some preliminary conclusions have been drawn as to the nature and degree of these changes, and as to the effectiveness of the program model itself.

The Nature of the Program

The program was designed to take into consideration the findings of much collaborative research conducted throughout the 1980's in the United States (for example: Anderson, 1982, 1987 and 1988; Fieman-Nemser and Floden, 1986; Lanier and Little, 1986; Locke, 1984; Schwager, 1986; Schwager and Doolittle, 1988 and 1989; Sprinthall and Thies-Sprinthall, 1983). Accordingly, the program model incorporated the following characteristics: recognition of teachers as adult learners; ownership; collegiality; practicality and relevance; support, and change over time.

The most important agenda imposed upon participating teachers throughout the program has been the notion of child-centered teaching. This notion was not regarded by teachers as being new, since they already practiced child-centered teaching in other curriculum areas. Rather, they were encouraged to apply strategies already used for other curriculum areas, to their teaching in physical education.

Collaborative efforts between teachers and between teachers and the researcher were important elements in implementing the notion of child-centered teaching into the school setting.

Collaboration Between Researcher and Practitioners

Collaborative efforts were instituted in the following ways:

- During two one-day and one two-day off-site courses. Teachers were exposed to a number of workshops and presentations, and were given opportunities to interact with colleagues to devise implementation strategies for their own teaching situations.
- Regular cluster group meetings were held at three-weekly intervals. Teachers shared experiences, identified obstacles to learning and teaching physical education, and solved problems collaboratively, using action research processes.
- Participating teachers were visited every four to six weeks by each of: a Physical Education Adviser, the researcher, and their resource teacher. These visits involved both practical

activity with children, and consultation with the visitor about progress made by the teacher.

- Teachers kept a diary account of their experiences in physical education throughout the program. This account reflected positive and negative teaching and learning experiences, ideas, accounts of courses, cluster meetings and visitors' consultations, and reflections of their collaborative efforts. The diary account itself became the subject of examination, reflection and discussion between teachers at subsequent cluster group meetings.

Collaboration took place within specific social situations, and was geared to an understanding of, and an improvement in, practices which occurred in those situations. Learning took place through action and reflection, and participating teachers gained a sense of ownership of the knowledge acquired.

Teachers involved in the program were perceived as participant researchers. Research was not solely being conducted on teachers, as they too had contributions to make, and validated the work by participating. Collaborative efforts made use of this involvement in attempting to improve teachers' practices in facilitating children's learning, their understanding of those practices, and the situations in which those practices took place.

Research Design

The research addressed shifts in attitudes perceived by the teachers to be a direct consequence of their involvement in the program. Final evaluation of the program's effectiveness will occur in May, 1991, using three analytical models in conjunction: a quantitative approach, involving statistical analysis of questionnaire results; qualitative analysis of data obtained in response to open-ended questions in the questionnaire; and interpretive data obtained through personal, in-depth interviews with a small, representative group of participating teachers. Mid-point evaluation, as reported in this paper, has been achieved through the second and third approaches. Specifically, the collaborative research made extensive use of a qualitative methodology within an action research methodology.

The preliminary findings reported below address firstly the ways in which participating teachers perceived that their attitudes, values and behavior had changed as a result of their involvement in the program, and secondly the effectiveness of the program model itself.

Preliminary Findings

In designing the program model, it had been recognized that teachers were most likely to change their classroom practices when their professional development experiences encouraged conceptual change. It had been expected that the two would go hand in hand. It appears, however, that conceptual change lagged behind changes in teachers' practices. Teachers require time to reflect upon the consequences of putting new ideas into practice, before they adjusted the way they value the ideas.

Statements made by participating teachers tended to be anecdotal rather than philosophical in the early stages. This observation echoes the findings of Shulman (1986) and White (1988). As teachers became more accomplished at solving their own problems using collaborative efforts, these sorts of statements became less frequent. Teachers began to construct new conceptual frameworks, and to interpret teaching and learning in different ways. Rather than being externally motivated in the way they behaved in their teaching, they began to take responsibility for their own practices.

Observations suggest that the willingness of teachers to work toward conceptual change may well be a function of the particular stage of concern which they are currently experiencing (Fuller, 1969; Fieman-Nemser and Floden, 1986). The idea that teachers may be helped towards higher levels of conceptual and moral development through intervention and exposure to appropriate learning environments, supports the writings of Glickman (1981), Sprinthall and Thies-Sprinthall (1983), Zumwalt (1986), Fieman-Nemser and Floden (1986), and Hord, Rutherford, Huling-Austin and Hall (1987).

Reported below are the observations of teachers about the ways they perceived changes in their values, attitudes and behaviors as a result of their involvement in the program, concerning the nature of physical education, teaching strategies, the role of the teacher, and the place of physical education in the school curriculum.

The Nature of Physical Education

> I found the courses tremendous for focusing me on what physical education was really all about. The new syllabus has been lying around the Phys. Ed. office for the past couple of years, but somehow I'd never done more than glance at it. I now feel really comfortable about what physical education is, and where it should be going in my school. (Secondary teacher)

Many teachers echoed these sentiments, and for the first time confronted the notion that physical education is quite different from sport. Many confessed that their school programs had been largely based on traditional sports block approaches. Little attention had been paid to the needs of the learner, and little had been done to cater for clumsy children, the unmotivated or the very talented. Once teachers became familiar with the philosophical aims of the physical education syllabus, they became excited about the guidance to their teaching available through the collaborative processes.

For many teachers, participation in the program enhanced their awareness of the importance of physical education. Teachers were uncertain initially that physical education provided opportunities for practicing communication skills, problem-solving skills or such social skills as tolerance and acceptance, or that lessons learned in physical education had any real significance for everyday life. Following collaborative efforts which focused on the nature of physical education, teachers from all three sectors stated that they were now far more sensitized to the importance of physical education, its nature and its purposes, and its relationship to other subjects within the school curriculum.

Teaching Strategies and the Role of The Teacher

Off-site course workshops encouraged teachers to move away from traditional teacher-directed approaches, toward child-centered teaching. They were encouraged to examine strategies for management and teaching which enabled children to take more responsibility for their own learning. It was to be expected in light of this guidance that teachers' perceptions of their roles changed as the program continued.

When teaching and learning are viewed from a constructivist perspective, the roles of the teacher may be described as facilitator, motivator, diagnostician, challenger, guide, innovator, experimenter, and researcher. These descriptions are drawn from statements made by many teachers, and support the writings of Osborne and Freyberg (1985), and the findings of research into learning in science conducted in New Zealand by Bell, Pearson and Kirkwood (1990). Teachers have become increasingly aware that they need to use a variety of strategies to encourage children to construct new conceptions.

A number of teachers reported that their experiences during course workshops had caused them to re-think their own ideas about the environment necessary to learn, and the teacher's role in providing that environment. One female Primary teacher said:

> I really understand now how difficult I've made it for the less able kids in my class to achieve -- particularly some of the girls. I've been obsessed with teacher-directed skill teaching, and tended to demonstrate the final product -- for example, the perfect somersault -- as something every child should aspire to achieve. I've now started to allow children to choose their own entry point on the continuum, just as you did with us in the (course) wokshops. I'm getting some amazing results, and all the kids are now working harder, but at their own level. They really seem to respond to the idea that they have responsibility for their own learning.

This changing perception of the teacher's role, and the corresponding changes to their daily practices of teaching, were central intentions of the program, and it had been expected that teachers would acknowledge these changes in themselves. It is interesting also that the changes to conceptualisation and to daily practices were not confined to physical education.

The Place of Physical Education in the School Curriculum

While most participating teachers reported that they had developed a greater awareness of the importance of physical education in the school curriculum, it was clear that different values were held by teachers of Early Childhood, Primary and Secondary schools. These values were expressed succinctly by three teachers:

> I've always provided for activity, because I felt that was what children needed. The difference is that now I understand just how valuable physical education is to childrens' development. (Early Childhood).

> It upsets me to see my colleagues "taking" physical education instead of "teaching" it. They couldn't get away with that sort of attitude in math, or language/ reading. For me, physical education has become my top priority curriculum area, because of its effectiveness at setting the tone in my classroom. (Primary)

> The difficulty is convincing other teachers, and particularly parents, of the importance of physical education. They see sport as O.K., but physical education in school time interferes with "important" subjects. (Secondary)

These disparate comments are reported to illustrate the fact that there are substantial differences in social structures between Early Childhood centers, Primary schools and Secondary schools. There are also differences between teachers related to their own stage of development, differences between individuals in terms of their own philosophies of teaching, and major differences in the degree of support and leadership provided by Principals.

While teachers found themselves attempting to change within a unique set of circumstances, there were, however, commonalities of expressed values, beliefs and attitudes which transcended these circumstances. Many teachers experienced an affirmation of their positive attitudes toward physical education, as a direct result of the in-service courses or cluster group support, or a combination of both.

Many felt motivated to "spread the word," and have conducted staff meetings and contributed to on-site staff development courses, with the specific aim of raising their colleagues' awareness of the importance of physical education in the school curriculum.

As well as a widespread claim by teachers to have altered their perceptions as to the *importance* of physical education in the school curriculum, there were many, particularly Primary teachers, who were now actively seeking to make links between physical education and other curriculum areas. Reports were that such links tend to enrich and add meaning to learning, in both physical education and the other curriculum areas. Many teachers began to apply innovative teaching strategies to physical education, which they had previously reserved for "normal" teaching. Similarly, some teachers discovered that new management and teaching strategies trialled in physical education lessons had application to other situations, and so benefits were seen to be reciprocal.

One Primary teacher stated that he had traditionally taught physical education quite formally, and always liked to be in control of what the children were doing. He now spends much more time preparing physical education lessons, and works to find different ways of stimulating the children to *want* to learn. He says:

> My most exciting lessons have occurred where I've set up different activities at learning stations, just as I do with science, art and language reading. I started doing this with the daily fitness program, and the move to teaching physical education the same way seemed to just happen naturally.

Clearly many teachers perceived that involvement in the program had significant impact on conceptualisation of physical education, and also on the ways in which they conducted their daily practices. Accordingly, teachers were asked to comment on the nature of the program itself, in an attempt to determine which particular experiences had stimulated them to make changes. Their observations about the particular elements of the program itself -- the nature and content of both the off-site courses, and the collaborative efforts of their cluster groups -- are reported below.

The Nature and Content of the On-site Courses

Teachers appreciated being involved in making decisions about the planning and implementation of courses. Ensuing feelings of ownership of both the content and the processes of the program stimulated teachers to actively participate. This supports the findings of a number of researchers (e.g., Anderson, 1987; Bird, 1984; Dillon-Peterson, 1981; Lieberman and Miller, 1984; Sarason, 1982; Schwager, 1983).

A second highly acclaimed feature of the courses was their practicality and relevance to teachers' everyday work. New ideas were introduced in practical workshops, and teachers were equipped with strategies to enable them to apply similar activities in their own teaching situation. Even quite abstract ideas were well received, provided they were introduced with practical examples. Similar observations have been made by Locke (1984), Lanier and Little (1986), and Howey (1985).

Of interest to less experienced teachers were hints on discipline, class management techniques and program planning. These teachers found less to stimulate them in abstract conjecture about the relative merits of different teaching styles, for example. The daily reality of their teaching situation imposed needs for immediate and very practical survival skills. This supports the findings of Knowles and Hord (1981), McBride, Bogess and Griffey (1986), and Schwager and Doolittle (1988).

Of particular interest was the interaction between Early Childhood, Primary and Secondary teachers. The sharing between groups during courses was perceived by teachers as valuable, and a number of initiatives have subsequently been taken in the wider community to further strengthen those links (for example, senior Secondary students working with pre-school children on motor skill development tasks).

The Nature of the On-going Collaborative Support

Cluster group collaboration was acclaimed by many teachers as the single most powerful component of the teacher development program. One Early Childhood teacher said:

> I've had so much support in trying to solve my own problems: there is always someone in the group who has a good idea, or who has experienced something similar. It's really good to feel you're not alone.

Many teachers have supported each other by way of speaking at staff meetings, or contributing to on-site staff development programs. This has been regarded as important in raising the status of physical education within the school, enhancing the credibility of the teacher, and strengthening further the bond between teachers.

Faucette (1984), Lieberman and Miller (1984) and Wade (1984) have also reported the observation that collegial support and follow up for instituting new ideas have positively influenced teachers to implement changes discussed at workshops. This was strongly supported by statements of teachers participating in the program. Factors which hinder change were seen to be considerably diminished through collegial support.

Conclusions

It is clear that this model of teacher development program has been effective in enhancing the quality of physical education taught by participating teachers within their own schools. Further, teachers expressed the view that they experienced changes in the ways in which they conceptualised physical education. Since the program itself was designed according to the principles of effective teacher development, it was to be expected that the preliminary findings, as reported in this paper, would echo the findings of the research upon which the program was based. This was seen to be the case.

Further, there was seen a ripple effect in the wider school community, in that many teachers involved in the program began to positively influence colleagues in their own and in other schools. Physical education programs tended to have better structure, sequential development of teaching skills was evident, and there was a general enhancement of the status of physical education within these schools.

Many participating teachers expressed new confidence in their teaching of physical education, and improved relationships with the children they taught, which were seen to carry over to other curriculum activities. One male Primary school teacher stated:

> I've attended so many in-service courses, that I think I was just going through the motions when I began this program. I expected to find an "expert" standing at the front, trying to fix up my deficiencies by spouting theory at me. It wasn't like that at all: I've felt so *involved* all the time. Being part of the research process has been fun, and I know it's been fun for the kids also. I've learned a great deal about physical education, about teaching and learning, and most of all, I think, about myself. I've been experiencing what "discovery" feels like, for the first time in ages.

The most effective element of the teacher development program was reported as being the collaborative processes employed for professional development. Teachers as co-researchers affirmed that they had gained great poise and strength from taking responsibility for their own learning, and from enabling those they taught to do the same.

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Teaching Physical Education Teachers in the Federal Republic of Germany: A Collaborative Enterprise

Roland Naul

Historical Roots of the Physical Educator Training Process

More than one century ago special attention was given to preparing future physical education teachers for teaching gymnastics at schools. In addition to achieving and improving their own practical gymnastics skills as well as theoretical classes the students had to audit physical education classes at schools and even teaching some of the classes themselves during their training (Neuendorff, 1905, p. 17). Their professors at the physical education teachers' college often had an additional job at one of these schools in order to supplement the meager income they got at the college (Euler, 1900, p. 822).

Thus, at the turn of the century, there was a fairly close relationship between theory and practice: the professors could rely on actual practical experience at the schools where they took their physical education students to expose them to the reality and experience of teaching physical education For the lessons taught by the students the school paid the regular teachers an additional gratification. Both sides, therefore, had advantages: the teachers got more money for less work, and the students had an opportunity of gaining teaching experience at school in their course of studies.

Unfortunately, due to changed circumstances and legal conditions, I can no longer recommended this old model of integrated theoretical and practical training. Of course the salary of professors has also changed--although I would not mind supplementing it according to the old model.

At the turn of the century there was an integrated, practical physical education teachers' training for the students, a close association with schools and with the everyday conditions, and practice of physical education classes for the students' educators. The teachers were both, theoretical instructor and practical mentor, in one person.

This physical education teachers' training, however, it did not measure up to university level studies. Not until 1925 was the training of physical education teachers brought into the framework of academe at university departments in context of a government-regulated philological training (Bernett, 1987, p. 91). At the same time, however, this new government-regulated physical education teachers' training, like the philological training as a whole, was split into two phases. The first academic phase of training comprised practical and theoretical studies in sports and was followed by a second phase of teaching training in the practical school context.

It can be argued that the academic upgrading of the physical education teachers' training within a university course of studies also brought about the dissolution of the older, integrated and practice-oriented teachers' training.

This two-phase approach still is the regular structure for the physical education teachers' training in Germany today. It consists of an eight semester academic course of studies, including some teaching studies, followed by a two-year practical and methodical teacher preparation course in physical education. This second phase is based at teachers' seminars integrated with the practical framework of daily physical education classes.

In the German Democratic Republic there was another integrated form of physical education teacher training, which was conducted under the direction of the universities as a practical fifth year of studies (PH Potsdam, 1989). However, in the course of the German unification process this structure has been abolished at several universities.

In the seventies there were some attempts at integrated physical education teachers' training at a few newly established universities in West Germany, e.g. Bremen, Oldenburg (Artus, 1980; Wiegand, 1980, 1984). However, all attempts failed either because of economic problems in financing these longer studies at the universities or because of legal problems with the recognition of the diploma for the integrated training courses for state employment of the graduates. Furthermore, the heads of the teachers' seminars and the mentors in the second phase of training voiced doubts that the practice of physical education teaching at schools could be achieved at all or in a sufficient way in a university-based course of training (Dassel, 1980; Söll, 1980; Wiehausen, 1980).

Other administrative problems concern entrenched bureaucratic structures, since these new models would have necessitated the shifting of power from one ministry (Education) to another (Science and Research).

Therefore, despite many new ideas and experiments in the second half of the seventies, the two-phase structure of academic qualification followed by pedagogical qualification has continued to dominate the training of physical education teachers.

Physical Education Course of Studies at the University

Today there are 16 federal states, or Länder, in Germany, and each of these states has different exam guidelines for physical education teachers. Even within one state each university has a different course of studies for physical education teachers. Thus it is fairly difficult to make general statements based on concrete numbers about the training of physical education teachers (Wiegand, 1980, p. 43ff).

On average more than 50% of the course of studies is devoted to skill training, including methodical instruction about teaching techniques, in eight different kinds of sports. About 40% is given to scientific studies in different fields of sport sciences. Less than 10%, in general about 5%, is taken up by the so-called practical teaching studies, where the students can prepare for their future tasks by watching, analyzing and planning physical education lessons.

For the latter part, which is also referred to as a bridge to the second training phase, there are clear limits in some states. In my home state of North Rhine-Westphalia, one two-hour course for one semester, i.e. about 12 weeks, is the minimum, and four such courses with 5-7 hours are the maximum (MWF NW, 1986).

Our real problem in the physical education teachers education in Germany is that many colleagues in the fields of physical sport training and sport sciences are not willing to reduce their portion in the course of studies for the benefit of teacher preparation (Schröder, 1984, p. 221). The two main arguments for refusing to do so are that the scientific part of the course of studies cannot be reduced, since there is already less time for the many disciplines in the sport studies and because teacher preparation is not the business of the university in the first place.

The opposite position, represented mainly by colleagues in sport pedagogy, calls for a maximization of teacher preparation in the academic phase since the physical education teacher first and foremost has to apply his scientific knowledge. The students' aim is becoming physical education teachers, not sport scientists; their main task is teaching, not research. Teacher preparation in the university context, rather than supplanting the second phase, has a distinct goal of its own. While the second phase puts the emphasis on class management, on achieving discipline and order in the classroom situation, and on organizing and improving motor learning in the physical education classes, it hardly leaves room for experimenting with new and different teaching aims and tasks or for new methods of instruction. These new students will have to learn and to try at the university because later in the teacher preparation seminar these possibilities often do not exist. As studies of the socialization of physical education teachers show (Baur, 1981), they base their teaching concepts exclusively on what they have learned and practiced at the university.

In Germany there are quite a lot of university physical education departments offering only one theoretical course in teacher preparation for one semester without auditing or analyzing physical education classes at schools. Others offer a two- or three-hour follow-up course where students analyze physical education classes on video tape or small groups audit classes at schools. Sometimes they may be allowed to plan and conduct one lesson.

Generally these practical teacher preparation courses follow a tripartite structure over two or three consecutive semesters (Perle, 1980, p. 68; Rehbein, 1980, p. 39). These courses take up a total of 5 to 7 semester hours at those universities where the arguments of sport pedagogues have resulted in adequate teacher preparation courses.

Essen University is one of those. Our teacher preparation courses are structured as follows:

1. An introduction to observation and analysis of physical education classes at university, a 2 hour per week course in one semester;

2. School internship in physical education classes, 2 hours of observation and analysis, perhaps taking over a part of the lesson from the regular teacher, followed by 1 hour of evaluation and discussion, 3 hours per week as internship at school in a second semester;

3. Planning and practicing physical education instruction on the basis of specific tasks (e.g. differentiation, group instruction, etc.), 2 hours per week in a course at the university again, organized in a third semester (Essen University, 1988).

Sport pedagogy in Germany offers several theoretical approaches and models for the observation, analysis, and evaluation of physical education instruction in the framework of teacher preparation.

We can summarize three main approaches. The most common is the model of instructional theory by Heimann, Otto, and Schulz (1965), which was first adopted (1975) and modified for physical education by Grössing (1980). Brodtmann and Trebels (1972) recommended this model very early for use in instruction analysis in teacher preparation courses.

There is a second approach based on Flanders and other interactional models. Egger (1978, 1980) and Grössing et al. (1977) developed observation frames that are used at some sport departments. However, there has been a translation or adaption of American approaches such as CAFIAS (Cheffers 1983; Martinek & Mancini, 1979) or ALT-PE (Siedentop, 1983; Siedentop et al., 1982). Most of my German colleagues do not even know these approaches. In some other sport departments the teacher preparation courses are regarded as a welcome opportunity of research in the field of instruction processes (Frankfurter Arbeitsgruppe, 1982; Hanke, 1991; Scherler, 1989). All those different types of a third approach share a set of qualitative methods which they use to determine, analyze and validate action structures and mental patterns of physical education teachers and students. Interpretative methods and learner biography analysis are of special interest (Jalinek et al., 1985; Maraun, 1984; Schierz, 1986).

Training at the Teacher Preparation Seminar

I would like to complement this survey with a short description of the second phase of the training of physical education teachers at the one- to two-year teacher seminars.

After graduating from university, or gaining the so-called First State Diploma, the physical education student enters the Preparatory Service, as it is officially known. Two or three days a week the prospective teacher attends courses for his or her two subjects as well as for pedagogy, didactics or instruction psychology (Bauer, 1975, p. 198). The courses cover teaching materials, planning of lessons etc. (Söll, 1975, p. 200f). On the practical side the prospective physical education teacher has to conduct at least 12 hours of physical education per week in my federal state. A mentor at the school will check and advise him or her on the planning of lessons and also report on achievements in these tasks. Some lessons will be observed and graded by a Subject Representative from the seminar. At the end of one's training the prospective physical education teacher has to write a thesis on a set of lessons he or she planned and conducted about a specific topic of instruction for several weeks, e.g. "Training a Mixed 8 Basketball Class in Zone Defense." After finishing their training for public service, however, most physical education teachers face unemployment today (Heinemann & Schubert 1989; Laging, 1987).

Proposals for Improvement

Before talking about improvement for the collaborating effort of researchers and practitioners we have to remember, that there is the framework of the two-phase physical education teacher training in Germany. An integration of these two entrenched structures does not seem feasible. Even if the integrated model of training gymnastic teachers a century ago would be the best solution, it cannot be reestablished again.

Therefore, the only suggestions I can make for improving the teaching competence of our physical education students concern the university phase of training.

First of all there is a dilemma we have to face: academic training of physical education teachers demands a high level of theoretical knowledge in different fields of sport sciences; on the other hand, the changing school environment in physical education demands a broader action potential in order to offer a differentiated spectrum of physical education instruction for different teaching contexts and aims. I think in future it will hardly be feasible to live up to the demands of both sides of physical education teacher training, the academic and the professional pragmatic side. There are two models, and we have to choose one of them:

1. We reduce the spectrum of academic training, refocusing on selected core subjects and questions, in order to be able to prepare the physical education students for the diverse pedagogical and social tasks of teaching;
2. We still keep the broad spectrum on a high academic level in the sport sciences with specialized courses of studies for specific educational profiles: a special physical education teacher for disabled or handicapped students, a special physical education teacher for health education, and a special physical education teacher for extra-curricular leisure time activities, etc. Every school would then have to employ teachers with several different professional profiles.

Regardless which model we will adopt for future physical education teacher training, I think the practical teaching preparation within the university context will have to be intensified.

We should create a mandatory spiral curriculum with six to eight courses, one for each semester. This curriculum will give opportunities for our students to learn teaching from the very beginning to the end of their studies. The students should systematically and methodically be exposed to and prepared for planning, conducting, and evaluating physical education lessons with a variety of teaching aims.

The contact with schools in the local community must be improved. Within the framework of this teaching practice curriculum experienced physical education teachers from selected schools and subject representatives from the seminars should establish courses at the university. They should also confront the academic questioning of everyday teaching organization.

In order to improve the collaborative effort the university professors would have to spend more time with their students at these schools to audit classes together. One possibility would be partnerships with schools. The physical education students could participate in conducting the physical education classes there, and the universities could make their sport facilities available for individual school classes. Obviously there are some legal problems, but if both sides could profit from such a partnership, a solution should be possible.

The main thrust would have to be a more interrelated collaborative effort. If researchers in the university departments had a more immediate experience of what is going on in the school gymnasium, and if physical education teachers at school shared their experiences with their colleagues who train physical education students everyone will profit from this closer involvement in both the university and the school. In this way, I think, we can bridge the gap between researchers and practitioners.

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Folk Dance Practitioners and Dance Ethnologists: A Happy Marriage or Uneasy Affair

Marsha Padfield

The relationship between the folk dance practitioner and the dance ethnologist can represent all that is good, strong, and effective in collaborative relationships. It can also, unfortunately, illustrate abuses, jealousies, and lack of communication. Each group possesses some unique goals that are a direct reflection of their own particular aims and needs. There are also several shared goals. It is important to look at how we recognize and use, not abuse, our differences. The aim should not be to transform each other; but rather to value differences. It is in these points of uniqueness that we can develop strength, depth, and breadth in the dance field.

While the methods and work settings of these groups of people may differ, they operate from and share a mutual energizing force or catalyst. This is a shared passion for and commitment to dance as a representative reflector/creator of cultures. Whether they are performers in an ethnic dance troop, teachers at a YM/WCA, or ethnologists in Katmandu; there is a shared deep interest in and love for folk/ethnic/national dance. We are led to express this concern/interest in somewhat different avenues, pursuits or ways in our lives. Unfortunately, this tends to isolate us from one another. We lose awareness and sight of each other's talents and abilities. More seriously, we do not benefit from the knowledges we each possess. Increased communication may not always lead to collaboration, nor should it, but it will lead to greater understanding, appreciation, and hopefully respect, for our related yet unique goals and needs.

The dance ethnologist is primarily a researcher and as such shares the goals of all researchers: the endeavor to discover new facts and information. The dance ethnologist point of view or perspective sees dance as an aspect of human behavior, dance within culture, dance as a vital, dynamic reflection of and creator within a culture. The dance ethnologist thinks about dance as a "conceptual/physical melding" rather than just a physical doing. Gertrude Kurath, anthropologist and great pioneer in dance ethnology, described dance ethnology as "an approach toward, and a method of eliciting the place of dance in human life" (Kurath, 1960, p. 250).

To illustrate this point, let me share a personal anecdote. When reading the works of "arm-chair anthropologists" and even early ethnographic studies, I experience great frustration upon encountering the phrase "...and then they danced." Often a vivid description metaphorically leads one into a village, the fire-light is flickering, the drums are pounding "...and then they danced!" I am not criticizing these early authors, rather I am issuing myself and other dance ethnologists the challenge to discover effective ways of looking at, describing, and understanding that dance.

The dance ethnologist is concerned with discovering content, and developing appropriate methods to reveal/document/decode and analyze the content. The latter is very important as the field is relatively new and presents some very particular/unique/idiosyncratic challenges due to the subject matter. Dance is studied in context -- who is dancing, where, when, why. Some ethnologists, particularly those working in Eastern Europe, tend to focus their efforts on tracing the origins and evolution of dances, and studying the actual steps and spatial patterns. These are documented in detail and analyzed. As well, dance ethnologist anthropologist Adrienne Kaeppler pursues this end in her study of Tongan dance (Kaeppler, 1972). She applies a linguistic model to the dance and creates a "building block" structure of units and meaning. Through the analysis of kinemes (units of movement) a more emic perspective of significant units of movement can be gained.

Whereas, other dance ethnologists employ anthropological methods of participant/observation, ethnography, interviews, etc. in their research. They search for function, meaning/role of the dance in the society and to individuals. For example, in Canada, Andriy Nahachewsky's "The Kolomeyka: Change and Diversity in Canadian Ukrainian Folk Dance." The methodology and goals illustrate well those of most dance ethnologists:

1. Examination of historical records, books, journals, descriptions, accounts, photographs.
2. Field studies in Canada/Ukraine participant observation, ethnographic interviews, questionnaire.
3. Videotaping of dances.
4. Labanotating of dances.
5. Comparative analysis of the materials historically and cross culturally (Canada and Ukraine).

Table 1

Dance Ethnologist -- A Researcher

Perspective:

a) Dance as aspect of human behavior -- "conceptual/physical melding"
b) Dance within culture
c) Dance as dynamic reflector/creator of culture

Goals:

a) Discover new information, content
b) Develop methods for documenting, studying, analyzing dance

Work Places/Settings:

a) Throughout the world "on location"
b) Universities
c) Libraries, newspaper files, etc.
d) Conferences, workshops

The information gained is usually then communicated in written or oral presentations. Very often visual aides such as film, videotape, slides, etc. are utilized.

The folk dance practitioners are professional, practical workers. They are inclined to work in action/doing oriented ways. One of their goals is to communicate or show the dance of whichever countries or areas they are concerned with. This communicating/transmitting may be via performance of the dances, or it may be through teaching of the dances. Folk dance practitioners generally act in multiple roles, that is teachers are frequently performers and choreographers. However, in the interest of clarity, I have chosen to separate them into 1) teachers; 2) artistic directors; choreographers; and 3) performers.

The Folk Dance Teacher operates in a wide variety of settings: 1) school systems (classroom/gymnasium); 2) recreation programs (community, YM/WCA, religious groups); and 3) Ethnic communities. The primary shared goal of the teacher in whichever setting is the facilitation of the learning of the folk dances. The aim is the active involvement of the participants in the learning and successful mastery of the dances themselves. Secondary goals are extremely varied and are largely dependent on the purposes of the participants and expectations of the setting in which the instruction occurs. Some examples follow.

1. *Ethnic Communities* -- An important aim for the involvement of young people in the dance of their particular ethnic group is the establishing and strengthening of a sense of identity. Dance and music are two of the most effective methods for the passing on of cultural traditions.
2. *Recreation Programs* -- The social interaction of the participants is very important to a successful folk dance program in a recreation environment. Whether the participants are teens or seniors, activity and fun are vital.
3. *School Systems* -- There are often two secondary goals when folk dance is presented in an educational setting: involvement in vigorous physical activity and cultural information sharing. The folk dance unit is frequently linked to social studies work.

The Artistic Director and Choreographer as Folk Dance practitioner may have the following goals:

1. To get the dances on stage, artistically "looking good," polished, "exciting."
2. To present authentic material in dance and music.
3. To maintain a dance company -- keeping it actively involved and progressing, performing.

The Performer Practitioner frequently is concerned with:

1. receiving good dance training, conditioning

Table 2

Folk Dance Practitioner -- A Practical Worker

Shared Goal: Transmit, via performance and/or teaching folk/ethnic dances.

Types of Practitioners, Work Place Settings, Unique Goals:

Type	Workplace Setting	Unique Goals
Teacher	1. School System	1. Physical activity 2. Social Studies/Cultural Link
	2. Recreation Program	1. Social, fun interaction 2. Physical activity
	3. Ethnic Community	1. Pass on cultural tradition 2. Social, fun 3. Physical activity
Artistic Director/ Choreographer	Various "employers" • self-employed • a company • culture, heritage, arts dept. • ethnic community • festivals, conferences Various "settings" • traditional proscenium or thrust stages in theatres • amphitheatres, arenas • gymnasiums • dance studios	1. Getting dances "on stage" 2. Artistic/aesthetic quality high 3. Authenticity of material 4. Maintenance of a company of dancers
Performers	Various "employers" • self-employed • a company • culture, heritage, arts dept. • ethnic community • festivals, conferences Various "settings" • traditional proscenium or thrust stages in theatres • amphitheatres, arenas • dance studios	1. Performing well, looking good 2. Good training 3. Ample opportunity to perform

2. looking good on stage
3. performing interesting choreography
4. having ample opportunity to perform
5. getting paid!

One of the questions this congress is asking is "What are the ramifications of continued non-dialogue?" As I mentioned at the beginning, I feel one of the ramifications of the "continued non-dialogue" between researchers (dance ethnologists) and practitioners (teachers, artistic directors/choreographers, performers) is the loss of our individual special knowledges. The practitioners are in one area of the "front lines" as it were, and can provide a wealth of research questions and information. When I interview, speak to, work with ethnic companies and

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communities they often state the following needs and desires:

1. more dances, "new dances"
2. style and step clarity information
3. choreographic techniques for staging the dances
4. music for the dances
5. costume information
6. teaching directions, teaching methods and "tips" for doing folk dance with a particular group
7. how to run, set up a group, a workshop, a festival.

A fascinating point is that often the very people asking the questions possess some of the knowledges needed to answer them. It is through the interaction, communication and collaboration of these practitioners and dance ethnologists that the material becomes "knowable," and "ultimately useful/useable." Dance ethnologists pose questions, set up projects that discover and decode much information. The ethnologist can then bring this data together in such a manner as to communicate much exciting and useful knowledge. Some of the many areas where shared need and interests overlap are, for example, the actual dances, cultural, costume, and music information. Certain other areas, such as those primarily concerned with teaching methods and curriculum development, for example, are not in the sphere of the dance ethnologist. The dance ethnologist, as well as the Practitioner, has unique special interests. These are sometimes not directly applicable or shared by the Practitioner. The concerns in relation to role and meaning of the dance in the culture, perservation and documentation of dances, the evolution of dances through time, and the effects of geographical relocation illustrate some of these areas.

In conclusion, as my title suggests, the relationship between researcher (dance ethnologist) and practitioner (teacher, artistic director/ choreographer, performer) has not always been happy, healthy, or constructive. Frequently it has indeed been "an uneasy affair" wherein one or the other party felt exploited or taken for granted. We mistrust each others' motives and sometimes, in our haste to realize our own individual aims, leave each other feeling unappreciated and undervalued. This may also be partially attributed to the fact that due to these unique goals we are often working in isolation from one another. Our shared and overlapping aims, and more importantly our shared love for folk/ethnic/national dance is forgotten. If we refocus on what draws us together in the first place, i.e., the dance, and communicate from this strong shared foundation, I believe we will not try to dominate or transform one another, but rather appreciate our uniqueness and strengthen our field.

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Appinini Italian Folk Dance Society, 12016-103 Street, Edmonton, Alberta T5G 2J6, Attn: Maria Antenucci.

Edmonton International Folk Dancers, 11581 University Avenue, Edmonton, Alberta, Attn: Jane Barclay.

Les Bucherons (French Canadian), Detour Agency, #200, 10008-109 Avenue, Edmonton, Alberta

Polonez Dancers (Polish), Box 4904, Edmonton, Alberta T6E 5G7, Attn: A. Koziak.

Shumka (Ukrainian), Box 342, Edmonton Alberta T5J 2J6, Attn: John Pichlyk.

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Section 5. Studying Our Success at Meeting the Challenge: Insights from Personal Perspectives

Toward A Real Partnership Between Practitioners and Researchers In Physical Education

Pauline Desrosiers

School practitioners (teachers, coaches, group leaders, educational advisors ...) and university research-professors play complementary roles toward the development of physical education. Action-research constitutes a priviledged setting promoting teamwork between practitioners and researchers as partners.

In light of concrete action-research experiments in physical education and of opinions expressed by authors in education, I shall attempt to outline the steps leading to involved in collaborative research and to identify the skills and attitudes related to its initiation, realization and follow-up.

From Dialogue to Teamwork

With the exception of research projects conducted by practitioners in their work settings during the course of graduate studies, action-research is usually born out of closer and more frequent contacts between practitioners and researchers.

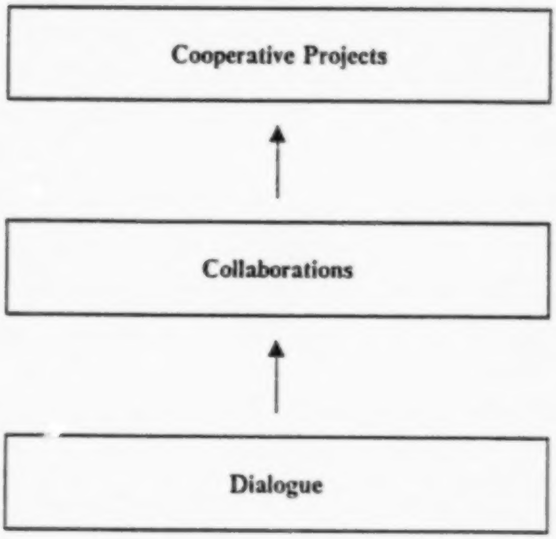

Figure 1. The steps toward the realization of joint projects involving practitioners and researchers.

Dialogue

Upon completion of initial training what are the contexts favoring dialogue and exchange between school practitioners and university professors? Professional meetings (assemblies, congresses, symposia ...), continuing education activities and finally, supervisory meetings uniting collaborative teachers, trainees and supervisors, provide opportunities for contact between practitioners and research-professors. Publications and professional productions (journals, books, audio-visual material ...) become methods of long-distance communication with others, be they authors or readers.

Collaborations

A greater involvement of the researcher within the school setting is evidenced when he/she accepts the role of expert within the context of professional activities (ex: workshop animation), of consultant for a particular project or finally, when he/she chooses to carry out an on-the-field experiment.

As for the practitioner, he/she is brought into contact with the researcher through association with formal training activities (ex: part-time lecturer) or research (overseeing the integration of a researcher or of a research team within the setting). Contrary to Graham (1988), Morin (1986) identifies collaboration as the first level of participation within a collective project, cooperation as the second and finally, co-management as the last phase (Figure 1).

Cooperative Projects

Some researchers are concerned with maintaining contact with the reality of the job, and are available to respond to the specific demands of the field. Due to the manifested interests and to the development of friendships and mutual trust, these researchers are more likely to be sought out to participate in projects introduced from within the field than their colleagues who remain confined to their offices or campus classrooms.

In the same way, researchers better informed of the daily tasks of the practitioners and having established close ties with colleagues from the school environment stand better chances of finding partners willing to participate in research project to be conducted within the school framework.

Cooperative projects may take the form of innovative projects or that of action research. Innovation is define as a project for plan change (Conseil Franco-Québécois d'orientation pour la prospective et l'innovation en éducation, 1976; Ducros & Finkelsztein, 1987; Huberman, 1973; Langouet, 1985; Savoie-Zajc, 1989; Tessier & Tellier, 1973).

As Hess (1983) points out, action-research encompasses a number of realities. For our purposes we retain this concept to refer to a collective project bringing together practitioners and researchers in an effort to achieve a triple goal: the development of knowledge, the transformation of educational practices and continued training (Alary, Beausoleil, Guédon, Larivière & Mayer, 1988; Calpini, Cardinet, Dominicé, Muller, Patry, Perret, Pini & Weiss, 1981; Goyette & Lessard-Hébert, 1987; Hugon & Siebel, 1988).

Skills and Attitudes Inherent to the Conduct of an Action-Research

The conduct of an action-research requires skills rarely used by team members in professional practice nor in the course of standard research. Hugon and Siebel (1988) have mentioned the impact of action-research upon the beginning of a new professional role for institutional researchers; it appears equally important to acknowledge the emergence of an additional professional role for the practitioner participating in an action-research project.

We shall attempt to outline, as mentioned by Dominicé (1981), the additional skills required as well as the participants' specific attitudes throughout action-research process.

The Outset

The beginning phase of a joint project, be it initiated from within the school or the university setting, calls for a number of skills which are seldom used in the everyday practice of the profession: identifying and recruiting the help of potentially competent collaborators; clearly disclosing one's point of view in terms of expectations, resources; approaching the project from many different angles; reaching a consensus concerning the direction and methods of proceeding. Tables 1 and 2 summarize these skills.

The attitudes favoring this type of teamwork are openmindedness, mutual respect, and reciprocal trust. Fortin (1987) recalls humility and modesty as necessary in an endeavor to bring something more, something different, to the field. The time it takes to reach a consensus about the direction and a provisional intervention and research design requires a strong dose of patience and a high level of tolerance for ambiguities.

For example, the initiation of a project entitled "L'évaluation formative en éducation physique et sportive dans les collèges" (Marsenach & Mérand, 1987) uniting experts and teachers from different regions in France, required a year of preparation by way of formal meetings, observations, exchanges and instrument verification before reaching an agreement regarding the goals, the intervention strategies and the methods for data collection.

The Realization

As mentioned by Dominicé (1981), action-research calls for the researcher to possess the skills of a teacher trainer. In effect, he must introduce the practitioners to the choice of research strategies and methods, to the development and use of the instruments, and to the analysis of the results.

Thus, throughout the course of the project which examined the impact of play activities upon child development and learning, members of a research team met twelve times over a two year period. These meetings allowed the researchers to share their points of view about the meaning of play for the child, to become acquainted with observation techniques, to read, and to self evaluate their teaching activities (Baillet, Briaud, Despax, Lafargue, Lamouroux & Martin, 1986).

Action-research alters the rapport of the researcher to the object of study. Like the researcher who abandons the usual neutrality in order to get involved, the practitioner also adjusts rapport with practice by distancing self and analyzing the experience.

Projects combining action-research-teaching are usually of long duration. The projects conducted by Martinek & Butt (1988) and Bourgeois (1990), lasted one year, Baillet et al. (1986) lasted two years, Marsenach & Mérand (1987), Morin & Vézina (1987) took three years. Therefore, particular attitudes are necessary in order to maintain the momentum throughout the duration of the project: listening to others' points of view, curiosity, patience.

The Follow-Up

The usual follow-up to a classic education study is that of publications and scientific reports. Due to the complementary aims of the action-research in terms of transforming the practice and teaching methods, the follow-up is characterized by the production of:

- personal accounts by the participants themselves (ex: in book form: Marsenach, Mérand

Table 1. Specific skills and attitudes required for undertaking a project initiated from within the school setting.

<table>
<tr><th>Practitioner's skills</th><th>Researcher's skills</th></tr>
<tr><td>• Precise formulation of a problem to be solved or a project to be carried out.
• Identification and recruitment of one or more collaborating researcher(s).
• Clarification of one's expectations.
• Planification of an intervention strategy.
• Familiarization with and selection of various methods of data collection.</td><td>• Familiarization with the dynamics of the setting.
• Helping to develop precise expectations.
• With the help of theoretical data, shedding new light upon the phenomenon under study.
• Laying out strategy options adapted to the object of study and relevant context.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">• Development of a common language.
• Agreement upon the direction and working procedures.</td></tr>
<tr><th>Practitioner's attitudes</th><th>Researcher's attitudes</th></tr>
<tr><td>• Trust</td><td>• Humility</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">• Patience
• Tolerance for ambiguities
• Mutual respect
• Openmindedness</td></tr>
</table>

Table 2. Specific skills required for undertaking a project initiated from within the university setting.

Practitioner's skills	Researcher's skills
• Familiarization with the goals and methods of a research project. • Clarification of one's questions, reservations, expectations.	• Identification and recruitment of collaborators from the school setting. • Simple and meaningful communication of one's intentions. • Acknowledgement of the needs and resources of the field.

Table 3. Specific skills and attitudes required throughout the project

<table>
<tr><th>Practitioner's skills</th><th>Researcher's skills</th></tr>
<tr><td>• Ability to distance oneself from past experience.
• Clarification of one's doubts, anxieties, enthusiams.</td><td>• Becoming involved in the setting.
• Offering training adapted to the practitioner's actual needs.
• Production and communication of regular summary reports.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">• Development of valid instruments which are simple and flexible.
• Collection and analysis of data during procedures.
• Adjustment of action and research in light of the collected data.</td></tr>
<tr><th>Practitioner's attitudes</th><th>Researcher's attitudes</th></tr>
<tr><td>• Honesty
• Curiosity</td><td>• Listening
• Dynamism</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">• Patience</td></tr>
</table>

Table 4. Specific skills and attitudes required to ensure follow-up of the project

<table>
<tr><th>Practitioner's skills</th><th>Researcher's skills</th></tr>
<tr><td>• Writing texts summarizing the experience.
• Participating in training programs within or outside of the field.</td><td>• Helping the practitioners produce a written form of their experience.
• Supporting the practitioner in his training experiences.
• Communication of the study's results to a non-specialized audience.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">• Development of didactical material</td></tr>
<tr><th colspan="2">Attitude</th></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">• Trust</td></tr>
</table>

& Motta, 1987; or articles: Dumont & Morin, 1989);

- didactical material (ex: activity cards and cassettes by Morin & Vézina, 1987; videos: *Nous, on va najouer*, by Lamouroux, Gironde, 1986a, *Relaxer à l'école* by Bourgeois, 1990; didactical guide by Lamouroux, 1990);
- summary reports of the project (ex.: in the form of professional papers: Lamouroux, 1987, Dumont & Morin, 1989; of professional presentations: Lamouroux, 1986b);
- participation in television or radio broadcasts (ex.: program "Actuel" realisated by CBC on the project conduct by Morin & Vézina, 1987);
- production of training programs (ex.: training courses developed by members of the team associated with the Marsenach & Mérand, 1987).

These various methods of broadcasting and transmission of the research data require special skills. Not only must the researchers find an appropriate tone and content to ensure the understanding of a non-specialized audience, but they must also support those practitioners who are willing to publicize their experience to colleagues within and outside of the field.

The practitioners who wish to participate in this phase of the project will have the opportunity to put into practice or develop oral or written communication skills. This joint production effort is possible if mutual trust exists within the team.

It may seem frightening for the practitioners and researchers to have to master so many new skills and attitudes. If one recalls that action-research represents a co-training process, it appears rather stimulating to progress together toward a change which is, at its base, of a personal nature.

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Measuring Partnership Outcomes in Teaching Physical Education: A Behavioral Approach

Hans van der Mars and Paul Darst

Introduction

For some years there have been repeated calls for increased collaboration between public schools and universities aimed at improving education for this nation's youth (e.g., Hall, Hord, & Brown, 1980). This call for collaborative efforts has also trickled down to those involved in physical education teacher education as evidenced by the *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*'s 1988 monograph on Collaboration for instructional improvement (Martinek & Schempp, 1988). In this monograph some exciting examples of collaboration were presented. Using very different approaches, changes (i.e., improvements) were established in programs of practitioners.

Despite repeated calls for close ties between public schools and teacher education departments in universities, they remain the exception instead of the rule. Why are such working relationships not more commonplace? There are several possible explanations. We believe two important factors keep teacher educators and practitioners from developing such partnerships: 1) the work environment demands of both practitioners and teacher educator; and 2) the differing questions and concerns of both partners (Graham, 1988).

Work Place Demands

Practitioners with full-time appointments often regard collaboration a low-priority item considering their workplace demands. Involvement in extracurricular activities, full teaching schedules during the entire week, lack of administrative support, and other professional commitments often make for a very tight work schedule. Even if the practitioner really wanted to work closely with a university faculty member, often there is little time available.

One might think that collaborative efforts would emerge especially at larger universities, where, compared to smaller institutions, faculty members are provided with more opportunities to conduct research. Yet the criteria used to evaluate faculty members' performance at such institutions create an environment that simply punishes active, intensive long-term involvement with practitioners. The expectation for high rates of data-based research publications makes collaboration really unattractive to the university faculty member. Often the process does not provide data quickly enough to develop a research line. The fruits of collaborative efforts may not appear until much later. The professor (that is, the untenured assistant professor), however, cannot wait that long. Thus, it is no surprise that the few successful collaborative efforts within physical education were/are spearheaded by more senior professors. The work environment on larger university campuses most likely will not change dramatically, at least for the coming years. Yet there are frequent calls for improvement in undergraduate education, not the least of which is undergraduate teacher preparation. A recent report by Lynne Cheney (1990) called for reevaluation of how teaching and research are balanced within institutions of higher education. Such reports ultimately may result in more of (physical) education professors' time being spent in schools. If/when such efforts are reinforced rather than punished by universities, partnerships have a good chance of developing. Until then, truly valuing the importance of teaching and/or spending more time in schools working with teachers might well be likened to a kiss of death.

Faculty members are smaller colleges and universities are also less likely to engage actively in collaborative efforts. Their typical workload often leaves little time to conduct large-scale (i.e., school district wide) collaborative work. Those who work at small colleges/universities are all too familiar with the 12-hour teaching loads complemented with student teaching supervision, and coupled with a host of administrative duties.

Differing Interests

The second factor deals with the differing professional interests and concerns of both the practitioner and teacher educator. Practitioners, because of their type of work, have to be more of generalists in what they do. Professors are expected to be specialists based on the nature of their work. This will often create differences in concerns and interests. Given the many differences between both practitioners and professors (Graham, 1988), the chances of finding matching interests between teacher educators and practitioners might at times seem slim. If concerns and interests of practitioners are similar to those of the professor, chances of successful collaboration are greatly enhanced.

There Are Ways . . .

Yet despite the above factors and others, such as lack of funding, we believe partnerships can and should still be developed on a small-scale basis. For this to be fruitful to both partners, several building blocks need to be present. Locke (1985) presented an insightful analysis of the existing tension between teacher and professor when a partnership is started. He made several suggestions on what both parties need to be aware of when trying to work together (i.e., manage and control the ever-existing tension). Professors should try to 1) show trust; 2) show genuine care about teachers and their work; 3) make the program be the client rather than the teacher; and 4) be on the school site often to be of any help.

Suggestions for teachers included 1) Do not expect that professors can do magic. Most likely they will not have a slick solution; 2) Be nice, be friendly; 3) Use the professor as a rich source of information, because he/she has most likely been in more schools in the last five weeks than the teacher in the last five years; 4) If the professor is in need of information, be willing to give it freely. Don't make it seem like (s)he is pulling teeth.

If/when partnerships contain such building blocks, they become viable, in that, over time, a mutual recognition and appreciation of each other's work demands can emerge. We have tried at Arizona State University to develop professional working relationships with many school districts and individual physical education teachers in Arizona, across the country and in other countries. For example, the elementary physical education program developed by Victor Dauer and Bob Pangrazi has been adopted in many districts and individual schools across the country. We have also had some success with our junior and senior high school models being used in parts across Arizona and in other areas. We believe that we have had relatively good luck matching our interests with public school teachers and administrators with regards to various collaborative projects. We have had our share of setbacks, problems, and frustrations. Yet we continue our efforts because of our strong belief in the need for both quality physical education programs and field experiences for both undergraduate and graduate students. We have developed relationships through normal procedures such as visits to the schools, taking classes out to observe certain kinds of lessons, graduate classes, in-service sessions, student teacher placements, etc. We have collaborated with these teachers and with these districts and experimented formally and informally with curriculum models, lesson plan formats, teaching styles, grading schemes, and new activities for the curriculum.

Formal research projects have focused on feedback rates, types of feedback, movement patterns, movement rates, management procedures, academic learning time, response latencies, supervision techniques, instructional procedures, and interaction patterns. As part of these research efforts we have used both traditional group designs as well as applied behavior analysis (ABA) designs (also called single subject designs). We have found the latter to fit better when working with different teachers in different programs. Single subject research aims to establish functional relationships between selected events in the environment through repeated observations. If, as the result of a change in one feature of the setting, the behavior of the teacher and/or students also changes, and this change occurs across different classes, or different teachers in the same school it is said that there is a functional relationship. For example, if a teacher wanted to increase the student participation level in the intramural program, a new procedure (e.g., new activity offerings) would be introduced and tried out. If the percent of participating students is increased, and this occurs across a number of grade levels, and activities, it can be said with confidence that 1) improvements were made in this program area; and 2) it was the new procedure that produced the improvement.

Both sport pedagogy and general education literature include countless reports of successful and effective application of both the principles and procedures of applied behavior analysis. Yet, despite its rich history of successes across different settings and populations, use of behaviorally based approaches in further advancing the science of teaching continues to be questioned, even in terms of its desirability (Lawson, 1990; McKay, Gore & Kirk, 1990). This appears to be caused primarily by continued failure to understand and/or accept both the designs and the underlying assumptions. Despite this concern, a number of features of the single subject experimental designs are quite attractive for developing evidence of success in collaborative efforts among teacher educators and practitioners. These include 1) focus on establishing changes (i.e., improvements) in individual people and/or settings; 2) repeated measurements over extended periods of time; 3) using a baseline of performance as a starting point for improvement efforts; and 4) graphically displaying results. As such, ABA strategies provide excellent tools for demonstrating how collective efforts are impacting on instructional practices.

Focus on Individual People or Settings

Traditional educational research aims to seek out features of effective educational practices which have high levels of generalizability (i.e., they apply to many different educational settings, teachers, students, etc.). To determine this, two (or more) groups of teachers get exposed to different experimental conditions. All members within each group (typically) are observed once, their scores pooled and represented by a group mean score. The means of the group are then compared and through selected statistical manipulation it is determined if one group performed better beyond chance. What is impossible to determine, of course, is how the individual members within a group performed, because only the groups' averages are compared. For example, as can be seen in Figure 1, some of the people in group A did worse than some of the members in group B, even though the former group would have performed significantly better, at least based on the statistical analysis. This is what makes generalizing from the group to the individual member within the group very difficult. And it is precisely the improvement of the individual program that is the primary focus of single subject research as well as collaboration. Problems occurring in specific situations and identified by *a* teacher working in *a* setting are the target of collaboration. The teacher working in that particular program is going to be more interested in improvement strategies that work in his/her particular setting.

Use of Repeated Observations

As has been noted, one characteristic of successful collaboration is that such efforts take place over long periods of time (Anderson, 1988). While having the same overall goal of determining effective and generalizable practices, single subject research takes a different route by intensively (i.e., repeatedly) observing an individual teacher or student. Thus, rather than observing many different individuals once, one or just a few individuals are observed many times. This feature fits nicely in collaborative projects because it puts the professor in touch repeatedly over longer periods of time with the setting in which solutions are sought.

Using a Baseline as a Starting Point

Before making any attempts to solve a particular problem, it is critical to obtain a baseline measure. Obtaining a baseline provides both teacher and professor information on the severity and nature of the problem, and allows them to develop a more finely tuned intervention. Furthermore, baseline data provide a basis for determining whether and how large an improvement occurred.

Graphic Display of Results

Results of projects using single subject designs are typically displayed in graphic form as the kind shown in Figure 2. Such graphs are also used to analyze/evaluate whether results are of sufficient magnitude to show the effectiveness of the change strategy. The simplicity with which results are shown is at the same time a very powerful means of documenting improvements. Cooper, Heron and Heward (1987) provide an excellent overview of the criteria used to evaluate graphic displays of data (e.g., Cooper, Heron, & Heward, 1987).

Areas of Focus For Improvement

There are many program features that teachers might be interested in working on for the purpose of improving it. As noted by many before us, it is important to remember that it is the teacher who should decide what areas need help, not the professor. Trying to persuade the teacher that his/her problem is not as important as the one perceived by the professor is an excellent tension arouser (Locke, 1985), and potentially detrimental to the partnership.

Areas of interest can be grouped into three main categories: 1) Program issues, where the focus is on areas such as the offering and designing of new activity units, public awareness enhancement, and program administration. For example, many secondary school physical education specialists are interested in applied ideas on coaching (e.g., guidelines for nutrition and weight training). This is often an effective area for developing both trust and credibility with a teacher/coach; 2) student behavior, which would include assistance in managing students' overall conduct while in the program; and 3) teacher behavior, where help sought by the teacher regarding his/her own instructional skills. Examples within the three areas are shown in Table 1.

Developing Evidence of Success in Partnerships

Anytime teachers and professors find common ground to work on, and are willing to help each other out it will increase the chance of enhancing the quality of a program, no matter how small the impact might seem at times. One can determine whether impacts of partnerships on a program both informally and formally.

Informal Indicators of Success

Informally one could look for indicators of increased or renewed teacher and student enthusiasm and motivation; earlier arrival by teacher at school in the morning; increased frequencies in phone calls from the teacher seeking additional information; and responses from the teacher such as "Hey, that new stuff on team handball was great.", etc. Logistically, such evidence may take much longer to gather, be

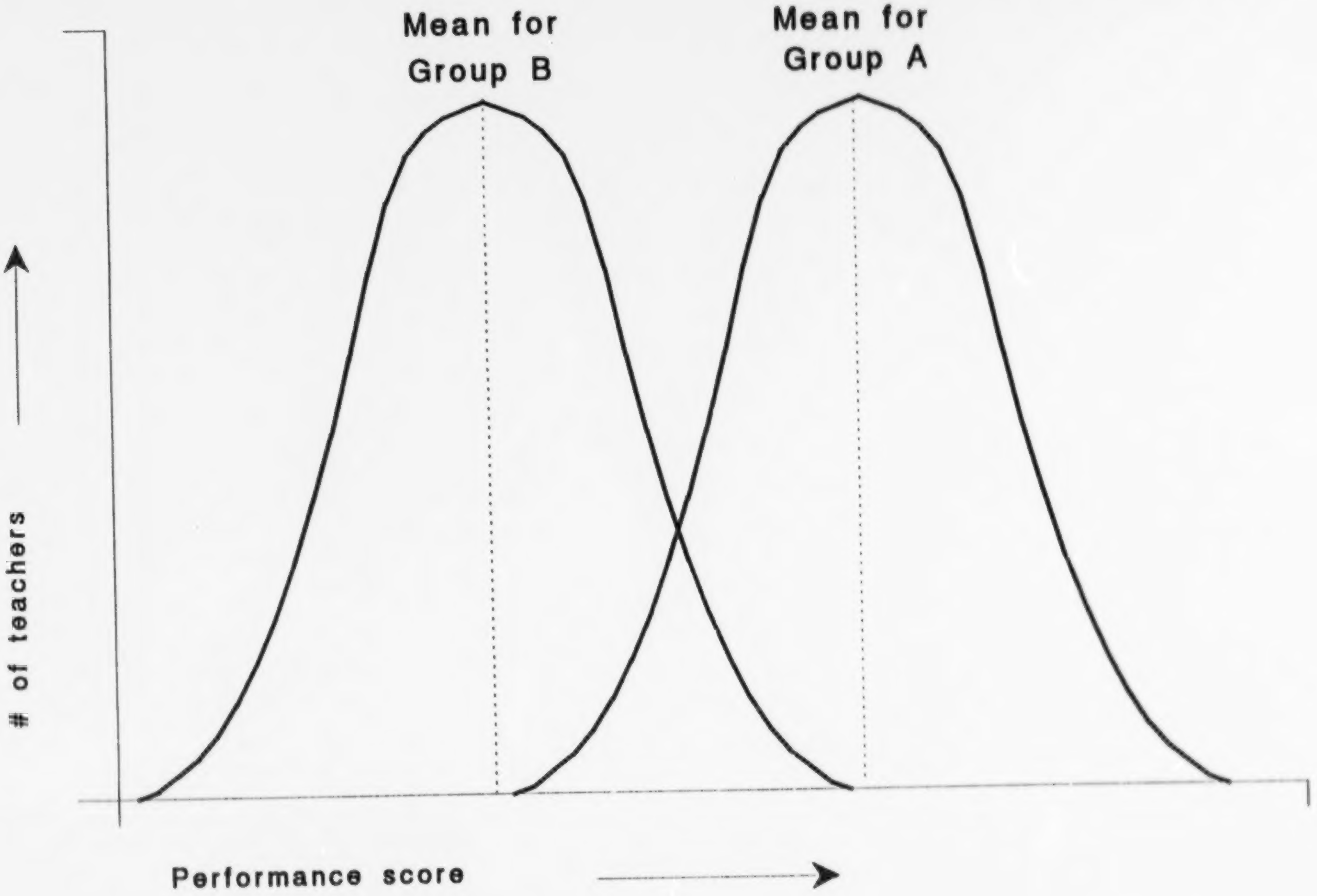

Figure 1. Group performance comparison.

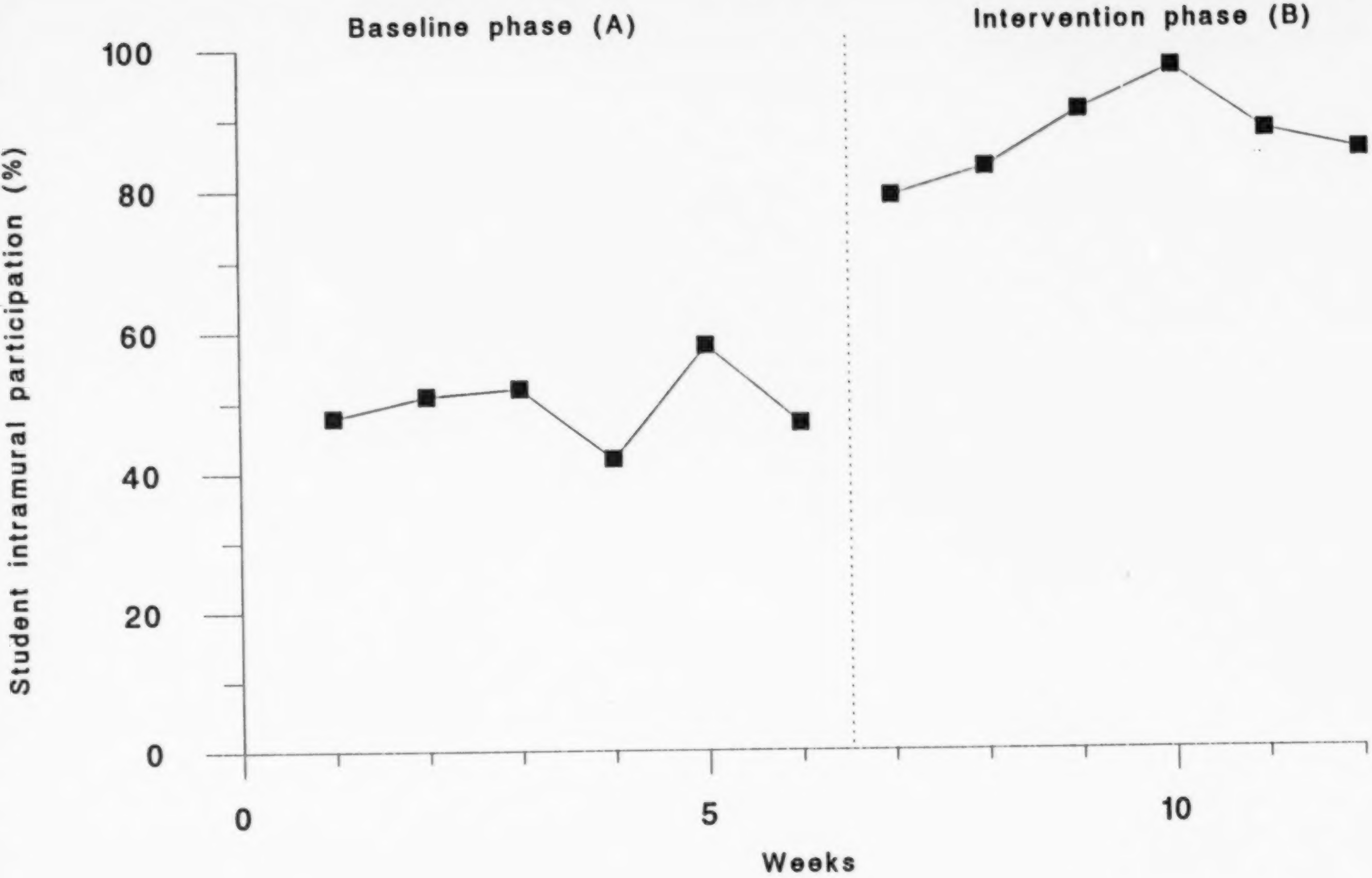

Figure 2. Sample of AB design's graphic display.

Table 1

Possible Target Areas For Partnerships

Program Focus

New content:
- Frisbee
- Team handball
- Modified lacrosse
- Throtons
- Orienteering
- Initiatives
- Cycling

New fitness routines:
- Partner exercises
- Circuits
- Self testing

Coaching innovations:
- Weight training
- Nutrition programs

Program awareness:
- PE Newsletters
- PE Demonstrations
- Open House
- Bulletin boards
- Newspaper articles
- Professional publ.

Program administration:
- Fitness data mgm't.
- Grading
- Testing

Student Focus

Increase:
- Sportsmanship
- Student to student cooperation
- Productive Time
- Attentive behavior

Decrease:
- Time spent dressing out
- Time spent in transition
- Nonparticipation
- Off-task behavior

Teacher Focus

Interpersonal Interaction skills:
- Praise
- Skill feedback
- Conduct feedback
- Prompts
- First names
- Desists

Routines & Procedures:
- Start signal
- Stop signal
- Grouping
- Equipment handling

Behavior management
- Time out
- Contracting
- Response cost
- Group contingencies

harder to obtain, and more difficult to package as research, but they are important nonetheless. First and foremost they can serve as reinforcers for the professor and aid in strengthening the partnership.

Formal Indicators of Success

It is also important that results of such partnership get documented on a more formal basis. The teacher can use such evidence as information to be shared with principals, other administrative personnel, and/or parents. The professor can use such evidence as a data base for research publications.

As noted earlier, the strategies used as part of N = 1 single subject research lend themselves very well for this purpose. There is a wide variety of designs that can be used, many of which are extensions of the basic AB design. Projects using designs such as this one use the following phases: 1) identify and define the target problem in observable terms; 2) conduct initial observations to obtain a baseline. This would be the "A" phase in the AB design; 3) develop an intervention while conducting additional observations to determine its impact. This would be the "B" phase; and 4) perform periodic maintenance checks to determine if improvements are lasting.

Phase 1: Identify and Define the Area of Concern

Through discussions both partners need to identify and describe the particular concern experienced by the teacher using observable indicators. For example, if a teacher voices concern over students taking too much time to dress out at the beginning of class periods, good indicators of the problem could be either the percent of students late (or on time) at the tardy bell or the amount of time expired from the tardy bell until the last student reaches the activity or attendance area.

Another example of concern would be that of students' constant talking, cussing or complaining during episodes of instruction, where frequency of student initiated interruptions during instruction could serve as a possible indicator of the problem. Through discussions the teacher could be prompted to identify and describe examples of situations that led to a growing concern. This will aid in developing some good indicators.

Phase 2: Obtain a Baseline

Once the problem has been defined, a baseline needs to be obtained through a series of observations. Depending on the concern, these observations could be of class periods if it dealt with in-class problems or data could be gathered from teachers' grade books, surveys handed out to students, etc.

Phase 3: Develop an Intervention

The intervention is the component that is to improve some dimension of the program. It is especially important that both partners spend time together here to discuss the possible options. These discussions should take place at the school site, because that is where the change is to occur. Each partner needs to remember the following issues. The professor needs to realize that he/she may not be the best person to assist the teacher in establishing change, but rather another teacher for example. Locke (1985) has argued that the most positive role a professor can play may well be to help teachers help each other. Anytime the professor can provide other fruitful sources of help it strengthens the partnership.

At the same time, the teacher needs to realize that some of the suggestions made by the professor may actually work, even if the teacher might have tried it once in the past and it did not work then. That was then, this is now. This time the teacher can count on support and assistance from someone else.

Phase 4: Implement the Intervention and Determine Its Impact

The intervention's effectiveness is checked by continued data collection during its implementation. In certain cases the impact may take time to emerge. By collecting additional data one can also make changes or adjustments in the intervention should it appear that it is not producing the desired results. Documentation of positive results is a powerful reinforcer for both teacher and professor, and provides clear evidence that the targeted feature of the program is improving.

Phase 5: Periodic Maintenance Checks

Once both partners are satisfied with the improvements in one program area, they will switch to another program area. This may result in some slippage in the initial gains. It is useful therefore to periodically check back and make certain that the gains made initially do not erode.

Do Partnerships Really Make a Difference?

One could argue whether gains made over time make a significant practical difference. There are undoubtedly many untold stories of physical education programs that were just starting to make inroads with students or even already established programs where pressures from administrators, other teachers in the school and/or parents forced major cutbacks onto the program. It is a distinct possibility that if today's physical education teacher does not get an ally in the form of a caring professor, there may be little left to improve. Given the need for practitioner-professor partnerships, we believe that the approach introduced here provides a very workable framework for both partners to use on a small-scale level to improve physical education programs.

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Section 6. If We Don't Meet the Challenge

Ideological, Behavioral and Structural Facilitators for Collaboration among Researchers and Practitioners

Hal A. Lawson

Futurists hail the year 2000 as an important occasion for assessment and transition. With the millennium just 10 years ahead, Physical Education is at a kind of crossroads, confronting such self-assessments and transitions. Questions regarding collaboration between researchers and practitioners -- namely, *whether* such collaboration should occur, *how*, and *for what purposes* -- promise to shape this field's future.

My approach to these questions is as follows. I begin by identifying constraints for collaboration. These are presented in an autobiographical prologue and a sketch of today's context for collaboration. Then I present ideological, behavioral, and structural facilitators for collaboration. I conclude with an epilogue that includes future possibilities and risks.

Most of my examples and my supportive literature relate to school and agency-based programs of physical education. Furthermore, my analysis is unavoidably slanted toward North America. My biases and limitations will become clearer as I share a personal experience, which illustrates some constraints on collaboration.

Prologue

In 1970 I gained my first full-time academic appointment at the University of Washington. I was one of three men appointed in the department of physical education for women. A separate men's physical education department and my own enjoyed a not-so-peaceful co-existence. Despite this academic version of the cold war, the departments exhibited some commonalties. Both departments were housed in the College of Arts and Science. Both prioritized teacher education programs, and both were feeling structural pressures originating from the then dean. Like selected other departments in the College, both were pressured to assign a higher priority to research, grants and contracts. Both were challenged to offer courses and degree programs for arts and sciences students. Resources for the departments, including the ability to replace faculty who were retiring, were dangled as the bait, and a merger between the two departments was mandated in the process.

My department chairperson, Dr. Ruth Abernathy, had arrived in 1968. She selected as her primary mission that of "educating" our dean. Drawing upon her experiences at UCLA (Abernathy & Waltz, 1964) and those of Franklin Henry (1964) at the University of California, she worked tirelessly to enlighten our arts and sciences dean. She emphasized that physical education as it had been defined and practiced until her arrival was in reality just a small part of our field. Our field was not physical education teacher education; rather, our field was Human Movement Studies. Abernathy convinced our dean, and she was named chair of the newly-merged men's and women's departments.

My appointment was planned to show the relationship between an arts and sciences approach to the study of human movement and physical education teacher education. At least ten other faculty were appointed between 1970 and 1975, and all were recruited because they brought an arts and science perspective to the study of human movement. Massive curricular change accompanied these faculty appointments. By 1975 physical education teacher education had become what Abernathy had described -- a small part of a curriculum devoted to the study of human movement. The undergraduate and graduate curricula had been purged of most of the teaching methods and sport performance classes. The new faculty prided themselves over new arts and sciences curriculum, believing that they were joining an elite group that were playing a national and international leadership role. Privately, most of these new faculty counted the days until each of the remaining teacher education faculty retired, allowing a scientist to be recruited as a replacement.

By 1975 our initial dean had become a Vice-President of the University. His successor as dean, soon to become another of our university's Vice-Presidents, was very pleased with our department. We offered arts and sciences courses and degree programs, research productivity was evident, and our grants and contracts were becoming impressive. After eliminating the basic instruction program during a period of budgetary constraint, it was abundantly clear that we were a physical education department in name only. Accordingly, the department was renamed Kinesiology just two years later.[1] We truly belonged in the College of Arts and Science! The approval of a proposal for a Ph.D. in Kinesiology appeared imminent. Optimism reigned in the department.

A new era had indeed dawned. Whereas the department once was dominated by teacher education faculty, by 1976 there were just two, including me. The department's culture also had changed. Scientific modes of thought, *one* way of knowing, had become *the* way of knowing. A knowledge hierarchy had developed, and each faculty member's prestige was determined by it. A person making assertions without scientific data confronted ridicule and was branded a "philosopher." Tenure, promotion, and merit salary criteria changed to favor the research orientations of the new faculty, especially the exercise scientists. Whereas experienced practitioners once were part of the teaching faculty, in this new era doctoral faculty were assigned all courses except student teaching. The paid consultation become the faculty's preferred mode of contact with persons outside the university. Most of the faculty believed that whatever physical education teacher education *was*, Kinesiology *was not*.

Furthermore, amidst all of the departmental change, few concerted and enlightened efforts were made to inform two groups about the ways in which the advent of Kinesiology would impact their lives and aspirations. These two groups were undergraduate teacher education students, still the majority of our undergraduates, and experienced practitioners in the field. Slowly, yet inevitably, both groups became alienated from the department. Likewise my efforts to link Kinesiology to teacher education and school improvement increasingly failed. A personal sense of alienation accompanied these failures and the frustrations associated with day-to-day life in my department's culture. Caught between the world of the university and the world of practice, and unprepared for the challenges of using my collaborative involvements to produce scientific research, there was only one way out. I left the University in 1977. Two years later my teacher education faculty colleague retired. Only one of the two replacements was in teacher education.

In 1983, the newest in a succession of deans at the University of Washington made the decision to eliminate the department of Kinesiology. The department was closed in 1984.

Today's Context for Collaboration

Even if my department at the University of Washington did not exert the national and international leadership that its faculty imagined, the department did provide an early and visible example of the transition from physical education to Kinesiology.[2] My department foreshadowed widespread changes that occurred in other major universities in the latter part of the 1970s and all of the 1980s.

Undergraduate and graduate curricula have been subject to twin processes, which I wish to label disciplinization and scientization. Mirroring my experiences at the University of Washington, teacher education curricula have been reformed and new degree programs offered by means of so-called disciplinary courses, most of which have been science-oriented. Fields such as teacher education and sport management also have become scientized (McKay, Gore, & Kirk, 1990; Tinning, 1990; Whitson & Macintosh, 1989), with attendant claims that both pedagogy (Siedentop, 1980) and sport management (Parkhouse & Ulrich, 1979) also are disciplines.

Today, there is evidence of the impact of this "blitzkreig-like" departmental invasion accomplished by scientization and disciplinization. For example, Edwards (1989) in his investigation of 240 undergraduate teacher education curricula in the United States found a 50% decrease in exercise performance classes and a 500% increase in scientific courses!

At the risk of over-generalization, departmental disciplinization and scientization do not appear to be limited to the United States. This is an international phenomenon involving faculty specialization and professionalization (Lawson, 1991) and fueled by two related developments: 1) the rapid growth of national and international scientific, disciplinary societies, together with their respective scientific and scholarly journals; 2) the increasing uniformity that can be located in doctoral programs, together with the domination of scientific research programs associated with them.

Mirroring developments at the University of Washington, departmental cultures have been, or are being, transformed. Knowledge hierarchies are present, tenure and promotion criteria are being altered, the education of undergraduates is not always prized, and involvements with practitioners outside the university are rarely rewarded (Lawson, 1990c). Just as my unhappiness grew at the University of Washington, so now there is evidence of frustration and the equivalent of growing alienation among teacher education and professional education faculty (Williamson, 1990). Questions are being raised about the ultimate purposes and values of the professors' research (e.g., Lawson, 1990a), and debates over the curriculum have become more intense as issues of power and resources have become clearer (Locke, 1989). In this context, few departments display the ethic of "all for one and one for all." Rather, the rule of thumb for faculty tends towards "protect yourself and your interests because no one else will." Academic work, for many faculty, has become lonely work.

Practitioners in school and agency-based programs also confront lonely work (Templin, 1989) in a marginal program area (Sparkes, Templin &

Schempp, 1990). Absent agreed-upon criteria that define effective and praiseworthy work performance, one person's view of physical education is in principle the equal of others. Such variability in practitioners' work organizations is reflected and fueled in ideological warfare waged among physical education professors over the "ideal" physical education program. Practitioners also learn to become self-reliant when they find that their scientized and disciplinized preparation does not always work in practice (Lawson, 1990a). Disillusioned by the limitations of their preparation and faced with what they perceive as the arrogance of university professors, practitioners are compelled to engage in self-protection. Furthermore, decisions about their work and working conditions often are made for these practitioners by local authorities. A house divided in the physical education profession does not provide the uniform front required for effective political influence aimed at improving practitioners' work conditions and practices.

In such a context, collaboration follows a predictable pattern. Collaboration occurs when two individuals -- a researcher and a practitioner -- establish a social relationship based upon compatibility, mutual interests, and perceived benefits. These two people determine over the course of their interaction the purpose, scope, and duration of their collaboration. Their respective work organizations may or may not condone their working relationship. Often, the researcher is viewed as a "consultant" and may receive payment. The results of this collaboration may or may not be shared with other audiences. In short, collaboration in today's context is limited. Such collaboration often begins and ends with two individuals and the limited social circles each inhabits. The benefits derived tend to be self-serving and the results perishable. This approach to collaboration may be characterized as individualistic, entrepreneurial and laissez faire.[3]

An alternative approach to collaboration is founded upon ideological, behavioral, and structural facilitators. Together, these facilitators signal changes in four related areas: 1) the work roles of researchers and practitioners; 2) the dominant cultures and managerial systems of their respective work organizations; 3) professional education curricula; and, 4) the research enterprise and conceptions of knowledge for work. They present the possibility for the reunification of theory and practice, discipline and profession. Admittedly, there are few, if any, examples of the entirety of this alternative approach to collaboration. On the other hand, there are several real-world examples of individual facilitators. Although these examples demonstrate the limitations of piece-meal approaches to collaboration, they also inspire some confidence in an alternative approach that is otherwise normative and conceptual.

Such an alternative approach invites doubt and rejection from pragmatists and defenders of the status quo. These predictable reactions do not, however, diminish this approach's contributions. Above all, discussion of it reminds us that today's context is not pre-determined or inevitable. There are identifiable choices available to both researchers and practitioners. To the extent that they desire collaboration, and facilitators for it are not evident, both researchers and practitioners need to become well versed in the acquisition and use of power for political influence and planned change. Furthermore, both may profit from an approach aimed at framing and naming these choices. In other words, an alternative approach promises to assist practitioners and researchers in the process of problem-setting (Lawson, 1984), beginning with the search for ideological agreement.

Ideological Facilitators for Collaboration

Ideology, Problem-Setting, and Transformation

Among the competing definitions of ideology is a basic one. An ideology is a system of ideas, beliefs, values, and knowledge. Just as each researcher and practitioner possesses an ideology, so do collectivities. While individual and collective ideologies may be explicit, in the majority of cases ideologies appear to be implicit and taken for granted, existing as a kind of tacit knowledge. It is tempting to think of ideology as what each person defines as "common sense." But, to reiterate, ideologies are not the sole possessions of individuals. Circumscribed as they are by dominant social, cultural, economic, and political institutions, ideologies also are collective entities.

Ideologies are socially constructed and constituted. This means that there also are collective definitions of "common sense." Framed against a societal back-drop, ideologies, once made explicit, have inherent effects or consequences. They may be reproductive, serving to reaffirm the status quo. Or they may be transformative, promising one or more changes in existing social relations and structure (Lawson, 1988). Viewed in this way, individual and collective ideologies *never* can be neutral, nor can researchers and practitioners *ever* achieve political, social, cultural, economic, and moral neutrality.

These observations about our ideologies are intended to remind us that we need to make them explicit, examine their consequences, and explore avenues of agreement. As Tinning (1990) has reminded us, discourse analysis, i.e., analyzing our language, allows us to approach deeply-embedded ideologies. Thus begins the process of problem-setting. While in pursuit of avenues of agreement, contradictions and sources of ideological disagreement likely will be encountered. If my experiences at the University of Washington and my characterization of today's context for collaboration have merit, and if we value and wish to facilitate collaboration, then there is something wrong in physical education that needs fixing (Lawson, 1984). While evident in physical education, the problem is not limited to this field. Transformative orientations and actions are mandatory.

To the extent that some of us are in agreement on the need for transformative actions, we likely will part company with others -- namely, practitioners and researchers who have few, if any, compelling reasons for prizing collaboration, and who have vested interests in today's institutional arrangements. There is a benefit here for universities: needed differentiation among departments and programs can result. Many analysts agree on the desirability of such differentiation and the prioritization by some of university-community collaborations (Lynton & Elman, 1987). Can we also reach ideological agreement on a definition of physical education?

A Definition of Physical Education

School- and agency-based programs of physical education offer forms of bodily exercise and related information to enhance the well being and life quality of society's members. Ideally, practitioners in these programs enjoy a symbiotic relationship with professors and researchers in universities. Our universities are charged with three related responsibilities: 1) Working with experienced practitioners to recruit and prepare future practitioners for these programs; 2) initiating research and clinical involvements aimed at the improvement of both practitioners and programs; and, 3) Recruiting and preparing future professors and researchers. Here, then, is physical education. It helps to reproduce and transform the physical cultures of human beings.

It doesn't matter if the program is aimed exclusively at either the development of physical fitness, the enhancement of sport skills, or improvement of each client's self-concept and sense of empowerment. It doesn't matter if the program is located in a school, community recreation agency, a sports club, a health salon, or a major corporation. It doesn't matter if the practitioner prefers to be called a teacher, coach, fitness leader, or health consultant. Nor does it matter if practitioners and university professors belong to separate, specialized professional associations. Ultimately, all such persons and their work are interdependent and school physical education is at the center of it all. Surely society's members see this interdependence! Insofar as all such programs and practitioners have as their fundamental aim that of helping and serving society's members, they may be considered physical education.

After nearly three decades of internal debate and turmoil (Lawson, 1989a), such a conception of physical education offers psychological comfort and, in its simplicity, aesthetic appeal. With definitional agreement, and mindful that the challenges of facilitating collaboration are not unique to any one branch of physical education such as teacher education or the preparation of physical fitness leaders, political opportunities become possible. There is strength in numbers, and political coalitions will be required to implement needed changes.

Thus, the achievement of basic ideological agreement on the definition and scope of physical education constitutes an important facilitator for collaboration. Norms that aid in the design, performance, and evaluation of the work of researchers and practitioners provide another facilitator.

A Normative Order for Physical Education

Absent the equivalent of a code of conduct, practitioners in physical education perform their work in relative isolation and without just reward. Accountability to clients is not insured. It is difficult to distinguish malpractice from routine practices except in extreme cases. Meanwhile, ideological warfare is waged among researchers and practitioners alike over the ideal kind of physical education program and the delivery system(s) recommended for the program's implementation. At a time when needs for variability and diversity are evident, we in physical education nevertheless demonstrate very little tolerance for programs and delivery systems other than the ones we endorse. Such intolerance constrains collaboration between researchers and practitioners.

If we can agree on a definition offered for physical education, then variability and diversity in programs and delivery systems have to be accepted and embraced. Rather than working for standardization in programs and delivery systems, which is neither desirable or possible, it seems prudent to pursue agreement around norms for practice, which together might constitute a code of conduct. A Normative Order for Physical Education appears as Table 1 (Lawson, 1991).

The suggested normative order for physical education includes three categories of norms: *Moral, aesthetic*, and *procedural*. Within each of these three categories, norms may be either *prescriptive* (principles about what to do or how to do it) or *prohibitive* (principles about forbidden thoughts and actions). As in other human service professions, the overarching principles are moral. One is prohibitive (do not harm clients), while the other is prescriptive (place client interests above ones own). Another prohibitive norm calls for the avoidance of diag-

TABLE 1

A Normative Order for Physical Education Teachers*

	PRESCRIPTIVE	PROHIBITIVE
MORAL	Place each clients' needs, interests, and aspirations before self-interest and need Enhance each client's development, health and well being Demonstrate caring and concern for each client Strive for virtue and justic via personal values, thoughts and behaviors	Do not harm clients Do not discriminate against clients of different gender, race, ethnicity, religion, sexual preference, physical fitness status, body type or skill level Do not ignore political, economic, and social consequences of work practices
AESTHETIC	Enhance each client's enjoyment of and involvements in forms of exercise and sport Facilitate each client's discovery of personal meaning (e.g., beauty, self-discovery) in forms of exercise and sport	Do not compromise intrinsic values of exercise and sport subject matter
PROCEDURAL	Involve clients at appropriate stages in goal-setting, content-activity selection, and evaluation Strive to personalize for clients' instruction and performance feedback Incorporate relevant research-based knowledge and new technologies in practice Engage continuously in reasoned deliberations about the moral implications of work practices and personal lifestyles	Avoid diagnostic stereotyping

* From Lawson, H. A. (1991). Three perspectives on induction and a normative order for physical education. *Quest, 43* (1), 20-36.

nostic stereotyping, insuring that clients are not force-fitted into the teacher's preferred method of "solution." Other norms are oriented toward the provision of public standards of professionalism and accountability, guiding thoughts and actions in: 1) formal instructional settings and informal contexts with clients; 2) collegial relationships; 3) formal and informal relations with parents and other clients; 4) management relations (after Sockett, 1990, p. 240). The aesthetic norms amplify the importance of values that are internal to the subject matter of physical education and involvements in physical activity (after Strike, 1990).

Such a normative order may guide the design, performance, and evaluation of work in physical education. In contrast to behavioral routines that may be forced upon practitioners, it invites voluntary compliance. With these norms, it is possible to identify and correct malpractice as well as reward exemplary performances. Such a normative order promises new insights into the concept of a professional induction (Lawson, 1991). Ideological agreement on such a normative order also will facilitate collaboration between researchers and practitioners. In short, behavioral and ethical-moral values, at least as much as scientized and disciplined knowledge associated with formal professionalization, likely will provide for physical education a common denominator of interest and commitment.

The Ideology of Professionalism and Knowledge for Work

For most of the twentieth century, human services professions such as physical education have made steady investments in "the culture of professionalism" (Bledstein, 1976). Increasingly, professional education curricula have become scientized (Edwards, 1989). Correspondingly, university professors have claimed that positivist science provides practitioners knowledge for their work. Claims for the superiority of scientific knowledge have resulted in a knowledge hierarchy, and scientific discourse has become in physical education the dominant discourse (Tinning, 1990; Whitson & Macintosh, 1990). Mirroring this knowledge hierarchy, a prestige hierarchy also has formed, with scientists at the top, other scholars and leaders dispersed in the middle, and "mere" practitioners at the bottom. As might be suspected, this culture of professionalism has constrained collaboration between researchers and practitioners. It has spawned the collaborative approach that I have called individualistic, entrepreneurial, and laissez-faire.

In the case of North American physical education, there have been two waves of this culture of professionalism. The first occurred early in the century when professional education programs were located in universities and fledgling research programs established. The second accompanied the acceleration of the so-called disciplinary movement in several fields during the 1960s. In Physical Education, the work of my close friend and second department chair at the University of Washington, W.R. Morford, served to usher in this second wave. Morford's (1972) paper, "Toward a Profession, Not a Craft," justified the central role of abstract theoretical knowledge derived from research in Kinesiology in professional education and practice.[4]

The essence of Morford's argument was this: if physical education wanted higher status for its practitioners, then the knowledge from what would later become Kinesiology must occupy a central role in professional education and find expression in work practices. Morford was advocating for the field the kinds of changes we were implementing at the University of Washington. At the same time that my colleagues and other leaders in the Kinesiology movement were claiming that Kinesiology was an arts and sciences department, Morford popularized bold claims that arts and sciences knowledge constituted the essence of professional education and practice. He asserted that our failure to incorporate this knowledge would destine physical education to the lowly status of a craft.

The persuasiveness of this argument is borne out in curricular trends since 1972. Department after department has embarked upon the same path that my colleagues blazed at the University of Washington. Meanwhile, positivist science has gained dominance in fields such as sport pedagogy (McKay, Gore, & Kirk, 1989; Tinning, 1990) and sport management (Whitson & Macintosh, 1990). Even though leaders for sport pedagogy and Kinesiology have continued to debate their differences, at a fundamental level they are related. Both involve disciplinization and scientization, and both owe their rapid development to an identifiable culture of professionalism (Lawson, 1989a). Unfortunately, the assumptions underlying these curricula and the parent culture of professionalism have been examined and found wanting.

Indeed, professional education in all fields is in a kind of crisis stage because of the reliance upon positivist science and disciplinization (e.g., Schon, 1983). Physical education also is in this crisis stage as indicated in recent papers in *Quest* (e.g., Lawson, 1990b; Locke, 1990). For most of the Twentieth Century, we and other human service professions have invested steadily in the core assumption that scientific theory and research derived from controlled experimentation in laboratory-like settings would provide generalizable knowledge for the world of practice. We were wrong. We have learned that there is a crucial difference between knowledge *about* practice and that *for* practice. Knowledge *for* practice must be derived primarily *from* practice (Lawson, 1990b).

Crises bring opportunities. A new epistemology of practice is emerging in which claims for scientific knowledge have been tempered and contextualized. Practice-centered research (Ingham & Lawson, 1986; Lawson, 1990a) and professional education curricula (Lawson, 1990b; Locke, 1990) have been advocated. There is new interest in unifying theory and practice, using a cross-disciplined perspective that differs from arts and sciences-oriented Kinesiology (Lawson, 1990b). In a practice-centered physical education, experiential knowledge gains the same currency as scientific knowledge. Practitioners and researchers work collaboratively as equals in professional education, research, staff development, and program improvement. Here are the beginnings of the equivalent of a paradigm shift in physical education. To the extent that assumptions about a practice-centered physical education are accepted, multiple forms of collaboration, not just *between*, but also, *among* researchers and practitioners become possible.

The fact remains, however, that visions of a practice-centered physical education are exactly that -- visions. If such visions of a practice-centered physical education are desirable, then selected investments in the culture of professionalism will have to be withdrawn. The prerequisite is a major shift in our individual and collective ideologies. A leap of faith, in essence a new ideological investment, is required before the complete elaboration and implementation of a practice-centered physical education can commence. Such an ideological commitment is itself an important facilitator for collaboration, and it opens the door for behavioral facilitators.

Behavioral Facilitators for Collaboration

Behavioral norms give expression to firm ideological commitments toward practice-centered physical education and the collaboration it embodies. Several such norms were identified previously in Table 1. The others have been identified by previous speakers, and they may be summarized briefly here.[5]

Trust between researchers and practitioners is essential, and it is two-dimensional (Sockett, 1990). The inside or private dimension occurs in the relationship between individuals; this dimension is supported by sincerity and integrity. The outside or public dimension of trust is placed in the systemic arrangements for collaboration; this dimension is supported by behavioral consistency and fidelity to shared goals (Sockett, 1990).

Collegiality is another behavioral facilitator. Researchers and practitioners must view each other as equals involved in continuous transactions. Knowledge and prestige hierarchies must be eliminated as a precondition to collegiality. Such collegiality is grounded in the twin abilities to cooperate and compromise.

Continuously reaffirming shared commitments, notably to self-, program, and organizational improvement, constitutes another facilitator. Likewise, expressions of humility in the face of uncertainty, complexity, and doubt help to bond colleagues involved in collaboration.

Research methodologies also can serve as behavioral facilitators for collaboration. For example, new methodologies invite from individuals stories and narratives of experience (Connelly & Clandinin, 1990). Both participatory action research (Berkey, Curtis, et. al., 1990; Cleft, Veal, et. al., 1990; Whyte, Greenwood & Lazes, 1990) and action science (Argyris & Schon, 1989) involve researchers and practitioners in individual, group, and organizational learning at the same time that data are collected.

In short, there are several, related behavioral facilitators for collaboration. To the extent that researchers and practitioners demonstrate fidelity to them, a supportive behavioral climate is created. This climate gives rise to the feeling that "we're all in the same boat." Without this feeling, institutionalized collaboration between researchers and practitioners is difficult to imagine. Likewise, such collaboration will not be possible unless there are structural changes made in the work organizations of researchers and practitioners.

Structural Facilitators for Collaboration

A practice-centered physical education characterized by collaboration between researchers and practitioners will remain difficult unless changes are made in their respective work organizations. Work cultures (Argyris & Schon, 1978; 1989; Joyce & Murphy, 1990), resource allocation systems, and evaluation-reward systems must be modified simultaneously. Fortunately, efforts already are underway to effect these modifications. The target is not just collaboration between researchers and practitioners, but what Fullan (1990) calls "institutional adaptation." In other words, although collaboration may be viewed as an end or goal in its own right, it also has import as a means to another end -- namely, the continuous adaptation of universities, schools and other work organizations.

A visible example is provided by the current school and university reform movement. The workplace is being redesigned, changing roles for teachers (Joyce & Murphy, 1990) and school administrators (Quantz, Cambron-McCabe, & Dantley, in press). Once characterized as private, lonely work, efforts are underway to redefine teaching as public, collaborative work. Such a redefinition necessitates not only behavioral changes in teachers, but also, changes in schools as work organizations, especially their work cultures and reward systems.

Likewise, changes are required in the universities. A practice-centered physical education that is founded upon collaboration necessitates changes in the university's cultures and managerial systems. For example, today's somewhat unidimensional tenure, promotion, and merit salary systems must be expanded to accommodate professors' external research, teaching, and service involvements (Lawson, 1990c). If professors are to be involved continuously with practitioners outside the university, resources, especially money, will be needed to support such involvements. Professional education curricula need to be changed again, and work load policies and expectations need to be revised. Above all, a critical mass of faculty possessing the commitments to, and abilities for, a practice-centered vision of physical education will need to be recruited. And finally, there is need for special linkage agents and offices in universities, cementing a "tight coupling" with external agencies. These provisions and several others are discussed and documented in an extensive literature (e.g., Arends, 1990; Havelock, 1970; Rothman, 1980).

In an international, zero-growth environment for higher education, such changes will force university professors to make difficult decisions. For departments desiring to invest in a practice-centered vision of physical education, necessary resources can only be gained through consolidation and reallocation. Consolidation for most departments will mean offering fewer degree programs and hiring a "critical mass" of faculty committed to collaboration. These are not decisions for the faint-at-heart, but they are unavoidable as we enter the 1990s.

Facilitating Collaboration: A Summary

We may summarize our discussion of facilitators for collaboration by using an agricultural metaphor (Berry, 1977). Most of the time, we have focused upon individual researchers and practitioners in much the same way that agronomists have recommended that farmers apply pesticides and fertilizers to individual plants. Some achievements not withstanding, the effect of this agricultural strategy has been to erode the soil, threaten the environment and contaminate our food.

There is an alternative to this kind of agronomy. Organic approaches to agriculture take as their point of departure concerns over the soil, environment, and the quality of the food we consume. While these organic approaches include attention to individual plants, there is an over-riding natural system that minimizes destructive environmental side-effects and makes permanent the commitment to our land and food.

So it is with the ideological and structural facilitators for collaboration. Together they provide a kind of organic system on behavioral interactions between individual researchers and practitioners. The ideological facilitators constitute the soil, while the structural facilitators are like the planting, cultivating and harvesting methods. A practice-centered version of physical education may grow organically from such a carefully-conceived natural system. It promises a harvest of ecologically valid knowledge, fresh approaches to professional education curricula, and new prospects for personal and organizational renewal.

Epilogue

My experiences at the University of Washington, a large research-oriented university, have been duplicated at other research universities. Departments that formerly were called physical education increasingly have changed their names and their degree programs to Kinesiology. They have done so for at least three related reasons. First, professors have perceived that departmental or program survival in these universities has depended upon a change to Kinesiology. In view of other changes in the research universities, these professors may have been correct. Second, professors' egos and work orientations have caused them to demand individual and collective identities that are not associated with physical education. Third, departments have changed because they have wanted to imitate others, perhaps persuaded by Kinesiology advocates of the advantages associated with such a transition.

I wish to make it clear that I support the rights of selected departments to label themselves and their degree programs Kinesiology or some other title. The advent of Kinesiology also has provided initially a healthy differentiation among university programs and departments. I support this development and commend those departments that claim to have thrived in the difficult resource environment of the American research university. Arts and sciences curricula in Kinesiology may be well suited to the research universities given their priorities for graduate education, research, and external grants.

But advocates for Kinesiology have not been content with their foothold in the major research universities. They are on a mission, apparently intent on transforming Physical Education into Kinesiology. Following a 1988 conference in Chicago, organized and conducted by professors in American research universities, in the Spring of 1989 the American Academy of Physical Education approved Kinesiology as the name for the field's "academic discipline." Now they propose to change the Academy's name to the American Academy of Kinesiology. If approved, this proposal likely will sound a death knoll for university physical education in the United States and perhaps Canada. Left unchecked, the standardization and imitation impulse, in North American higher education will complete the process. Whether school- and agency-based programs of physical education also will become Kinesiology programs is less certain.

One thing is certain -- the same alienation and frustration I witnessed at the University of Washington, especially among vocationally-oriented students, experienced practitioners, and professional education faculty, will accompany the continuous ascent and possible domination of Kinesiology. With the interests, commitments, and needs of these students, practitioners, and faculty in mind, it is time to "stand up and be counted."

Proponents of Kinesiology cannot be allowed to talk out of both sides of their mouths. Certainly they are able to claim that they have structured arts and sciences courses and degree programs. But they cannot at the same time offer these same courses and degree programs as vocationally-appropriate, practice-oriented professional education. This is academic fraud! It illustrates the dictionary's second meaning of collaboration -- namely, traitorous behavior -- and vocationally-minded students, experienced practitioners, and professional education faculty will be among the persons betrayed.

The other meaning of collaboration, the one offered by organizers of this conference, requires a practice-oriented approach to physical education. There are identifiable ideological, behavioral, and structural facilitators for this approach and the kind of collaboration it promises to nurture. This approach promises improved services to clients, better working conditions for researchers and practitioners, enhanced knowledge for professional education curricula and work practices, enlightened recruitment of new practitioners and researchers and organizational renewal. It offers fresh possibilities for integrative research, program development, and service. Here, then, are selected reasons for its development.

In conclusion, and at the risk of exaggeration, there is a more fundamental reason to cultivate such a practice-oriented approach. The survival of Physical Education may be at stake. Therefore, it behooves concerned practitioners and researchers to collaborate in developing an approach that has permanent collaboration as one of its characteristics and benefits. This will require political coalitions among researchers and practitioners and the intelligent exercise of power. There is no choice. Who else can prevent the hegemony of arts and sciences Kinesiology and the concomitant demise of Physical Education? Who else is sufficiently committed to the well being, life quality, and physical cultures of society's members?

Reference Notes

1. The name Kinesiology was the subject of heated debate; that the name physical education needed to be dropped was not contested.
2. Henceforth Kinesiology refers to an arts and sciences orientation to the Study of Human Movement.
3. Yiannakis (1989) recommends this approach for Sport Sociologists much to the dismay of Ingham and Donnelly (1990).
4. Morford later changed his perspective, realizing that cross-disciplinary knowledge for professional education and practice differed from his initial conception.
5. Readers also are referred to the *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 1988, *7*(3).

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Section 7. **Cagigal Memorial Lecture**

The Many Faces of Sport as a Challenge for Sport Pedagogy and Physical Education

Wolf-Dietrich Brettschneider

This is a shortened version of the Cagigal Memorial Lecture, which was given at the AIESEP/NAPEHE World Congress in Atlanta in January, 1991. The author argues within the framework of the debate on sport pedagogy as it presently takes place in Germany and some other parts of Europe. He regards his contribution also as an invitation to North American sport pedagogues to go beyond traditional questions such as teacher training, curriculum implementation and program evaluation.

Introduction

Whoever speaks of problems will usually mention expectations, which have been disappointed. The clear discrepancy between expectation and disappointment is an everyday experience of the relationship between sport pedagogy as a science, and physical education as an educational practice. But we can avoid this experience, if there is clarity about the different roles of sport pedagogues and sport educators. The latter teach children in schools, clubs and other institutions; the former do not. They think about the relationship between sport and education from an academic point of view, give (hopefully interesting) lectures, write (usually boring) books and train sport teachers at universities. They merely have an indirect influence on the practical side of education. Sports educators should also be orientated towards the development of sport pedagogy; and sport pedagogues should not lose sight of educational practice -- neither in research nor in their lectures. Nevertheless, we must remember, and also respect, that there is a difference between the theoretical orientations of the first group, and the practical orientations of the second (Scherler, 1990).

The other -- equally difficult -- task is to promote an international dialogue on central issues of sport pedagogy. What is taken for granted in established scientific disciplines in sport pedagogy is in need of change in awareness and behavior. Sport pedagogical research is still too strongly orientated towards national, language, cultural and political barriers and frontiers. Of course we ply our trade in the context of cultural relativism. And the answers to questions may be different in different countries. But the questions and central issues such as the view of man, the development of sport culture, problems of childhood, youth and education are alike all over the world. Some may excuse this situation by quoting the friendly slogan saying that sport pedagogy is a young science. What they are forgetting is that one may flirt with youth and its innocence for quite a while, but one shouldn't forget that youth is also the best time to lose one's innocence and find an identity.

This exposition will not add another chapter to the never-ending story of research in teaching physical education. This way I hope to avoid having to contribute to an area which is in danger of being characterized by a trivialization, inflation and repetition of scientific findings. Neither will I analyze modern theories of science with respect to their applicability to sport pedagogy. This is, at present, being done in a convincing way by some members of the young generation of Anglo-American sport pedagogues (among others Linda Bain, Paul Schempp, Tom Templin from the U.S., David Kirk and Richard Tinning from Australia, John Evans and Andrew Sparkes from Great Britain).

This paper will pin point some of the questions and problems relevant to those involved in sport pedagogy, whether as scientists or as practitioners, irrespective of political, cultural or language barriers. I cannot pretend to have reconnoitered undiscovered terrain. Rather, I anticipate that I might be in the position of that safari tourist who went on an expedition to a lonely island, and suddenly ran into a MacDonald's signpost coming out of the jungle onto the beach.

This paper has four main tasks:

1. It points out lines of argumentation which throw a light on how sport pedagogy sees itself as a scientific discipline;
2. Secondly, it will concentrate on some of those aspects which to my mind are important for the further development of the debate on sport pedagogy;
3. It will show from the author's studies how programmatic and empirical findings can be

combined, and how a conclusive theoretical framework can provide a basis for research;

4. Finally, it will conclude by pointing out the consequences of the author's theoretical and empirical findings for physical education.

Sport Pedagogy -- A Discipline in Search for its Profile

In the German sport pedagogy, which can look back on a comparatively long tradition, we will find that, at present, there is not much movement in the discipline. Despite a great number of competing concepts real controversies do not take place. One would assume that there is harmony and general agreement on fundamental ideas and lines of argument within German sport pedagogy. Those who analyze the present North American scene will find a vivid discussion on epistemological issues. One would assume that sport pedagogy and its research have reached a level of professional maturity and have been accepted in the concert of scientific disciplines. I am not sure whether my two interpretations reflect reality. The other possibility would be to interpret the situations described above in the following way: Quiet and vividness as a reflection of a lack of identity and insecurity -- insecurity, because of the loss of the unity of theory-building which formerly existed in the German sport pedagogy; insecurity, because sport pedagogy is still looking for its fundamentals -- as in the case of the North American branch; insecurity as to the way sport pedagogy sees itself as a scientific discipline, insecurity as to the developmental perspectives within the system of sport studies and sport sciences, and insecurity also as to the development of relations to the relevant neighboring sciences (Kirk/Tinning, 1990).

My thesis is: Sport pedagogy is presently in a crisis. In a time of hastening social and cultural changes, everyday, as well as scientific concepts of sport and education have lost much of their seemingly general validity, and have been qualified by competing models. Sport pedagogy is at present a discipline without a recognizable core, with open rims and without clear contours and developmental perspectives. It is neither sure of its ***subject-matter*** *and its objectives, nor of the* ***direction*** *to take. Its central problem is, how to bring together competently two different concepts of pedagogical thought and action: the humanist tradition with its anthropological ties and its normative heritage and the new paradigms, views and epistemological approaches resulting from the present realistic turn to the social sciences.*

To elucidate this thesis I will use the metaphor of the ship of sport pedagogy (Crum, 1986; Hawkins, 1987). A ship is built for sailing and not to stay in the harbour. But where is the ship heading for? Or is the ship already out of control, driven on by the competing paradigms and rapidly changing waves of fashion? Do the older and more experienced pilots still agree on the direction to take? Some of the younger helmsmen have already taken to the lifeboats and are looking for buoys with names such as "Critical theory," "Post-modernism," or "Cultural anthropology." But: Are these buoys pointing in the right direction, or will they guide the boats onto a sandbank? Are the helmsmen still in the line ahead of sport pedagogy? Or are they in danger of drowning in the whirlpool of social sciences? Already we see mutinous sailors appearing on the horizon. Their black flags signal: "Return to reality -- Save our Physical Education!"

Hence there are questions which beg answers: Which agenda of findings should we follow to ensure that sport pedagogy is taken seriously not only as an amiable but minor subject, but as a socially relevant scientific discipline? What are its tasks? What is the subject of sport pedagogy?

Major Issues of Sport Pedagogy

What is the Subject-Matter of Sport Pedagogy?

At first glance this question would seem easy to answer. The term suggests: Sport must be the subject of pedagogical inquiry. This is misleading for two reasons. The first question is, what does sport actually mean? Does it mean organized sport? Or does it refer to those activities which safeguard the quality of the life of young diabetics? Does it refer to all those in- and out-door activities young people indulge in for the sake of a slim and beautiful body? Or do we mean those activities which give people the feeling that they suffice the present ideal of health and fitness? Is it top-level sport, relevant only for very few talented athletes, and that only for a very short time? And what about those many forms of unregemented play, games and sports of children discovering the world, or of adolescents enriching their leisure time?

The second point is just as important. Irrespective of whether we have a narrow or broad understanding of the term "sport," it would be wrong to assume that sport is by definition pedagogical, i.e., an educational reality. We must ask ourselves why movement, games and sport are important, and also which forms are important for education. Education in general is society's answer to the fact that human beings develop. As human development cannot be left to the completion of genetic programs or the mechanism of the socialization process, education plays an important role. We may say that sport and games with pedagogical intentions are "produced" because people are not born as fully developed individuals. This does not mean that we can focus our attention on education in social institutions alone, as processes of education in private spheres are equally important factors of development.

Therefore, we must attempt to define the subject of sport pedagogy from two sides (Dietrich/Landau, 1990; Kurz, 1990b; Scherler, 1991).

1. Sport pedagogy can build on forms of movement, play and games which have developed in the course of history, and which are referred to as sport in society today. People grow into this sector of social reality.

2. Sport pedagogy can also choose another approach and place the human being in the fore, thus laying the focus of attention on movement and the body in general as constitutive parts of the reality of life. Sport in its institutionalized form would then be important, but not the sole sector to come into the sport pedagogical horizon of orientation.

The difference between the two approaches can be identified on the level of theoretical thinking as well as on the level of physical education at schools (Bain, 1990). Whoever chooses the system of sport as a starting point of his observations will probably approach the problem of education to and through sport from a sociological and system-theoretical point of view. The consequence of such an approach is that sport pedagogy is deprived of normative ethics and restricted to empirical-analytical research. Equally, differences between research in sport pedagogy and the social sciences of sport can no longer be identified. The guideline for the arrangement of physical education will then be the question of how to arrange and optimize teaching and learning processes in such a way as to enable participants to competently take part in sport in all its facets.

And vice versa, whoever takes man in his undefined nature as a starting point of pedagogical investigation will find central reference points of his reflections in anthropological categories. He will guide his thoughts along the lines of developmental theory. The important question will be how a child, or more generally, how man experiences the world by movement, and how he uses his body to develop his personality. It cannot be denied that institutionalized sport as a culturally relevant phenomenon of our time has a very important part in this process. But it is also important that the relation of movement and environment does not occur on the basis of systematic motor learning or technical skill but of play and free exploration (Dietrich/Landau, 1990).

One reason for the polarization of positions is the historically and culturally undifferentiated use of such terms as "the sport" or "the child." We presume to know what sport is and what sports means. But we overlook that sport in all its variety is culturally determined and therefore an element of our socially constructed reality. It is subdued to the processes of change in our society.

Likewise we pretend to know the nature of the "child" and his or her needs. But it is often overlooked that we tend to see children and youth not as they are, but as we want them to be. Both approaches -- the "sport-oriented" as well as the "child-oriented" approach -- mark indispensable reference points of pedagogical thought and action. Taken alone, each single approach would be a narrowing of sport pedagogical thought. Only by integrating both views and points of reference will we be able to define the subject of sport pedagogy adequately (Kurz, 1990b). Neverthless we can not escape from the dilemma that we have to decide where to set priority. Do we put more emphasis on education *to* sport or are we more in favour of education *through* sport? For the sake of clarification I want to describe my position as being more inclined to emphasize education to sport.

Accents for Further Development

I would like to take up this point and name some accents, which may help to broaden the subject of sport pedagogy, contribute to a revaluation of the question of how sport pedagogy ought to see itself as a scientific discipline, and also to reconsider the extent of its practical applicability. The intention is to combine the anthropological view which centers on the individual, with social aspects, that is, with the reality of sport. Such an approach prevents us from creating an idealized picture of "the human being" and from sticking to a one-sided concept of "sport."

There are three prerequisites.

1. Sport pedagogical research should no longer concentrate singly on schools, as sport beside and after school is also relevant to questions of education. In order to make well-founded decisions on pedagogical measures in sport, it is necessary to see the participants of sport not within the framework of pedagogical aims, but as individuals with very individual intentions and reasons for taking part in sport. Such an approach will open those settings to sport-pedagogical research which are beyond pedagogical institutionalization, but which are nevertheless relevant for pedagogical reflections and interventions. Such situations and contexts might be organized sports activities in clubs or other institutions, sport in commercial settings such as fitness centers or in tourism, and even more private and informal forms of sport in the family or peer-group.

2. Sport is part of a person's entire course of life. A person's sports-career is only line of his personality development, but it remains intertwined with other areas of life. This means that sport pedagogical research must also concentrate on the connection between sport and lifestyle, and also, that there must be even more research into those sporting activities which are of relevance in the life of all age groups. This is because people continue to develop even when they are past childhood and adolescence, and also act and have experiences in sport. I am sure that the Greeks, whose term "pedagogy" means "education for children" would forgive us for extending the connotative implications of the term.

3. Finally we have to realize that our pedagogical reflections on sport are embedded in historical, social and cultural changes (Schempp, 1989).

The subject of sport pedagogy will therefore be the individual and his/her sport-career, which discloses itself in the cross-sections of spatial and social environments, as well as in the longitudinal sections of individual life-history. It is embedded in different life-styles as well as in historical and social developments.

Theory and Research-Practice

The choice of the subject and objectives of sport pedagogy is not incidental, but largely determined by the choice of the theoretical approach. Therefore I would like to shift to the underlying theoretical framework and its socio-anthropological basic assumptions. This framework is derived from recent "transactional" or "dialectic" studies which have attracted much notice in the social sciences -- in developmental psychology, in socialization research, and also in pedagogy. I will not go into the nuances of this approach, but simply describe its main features.

In the centre one finds the competent active subject, which constitutes its development in interaction with its environment. Therefore, development is action in the context of the changing circumstances of life. Now, the development of the sporting-life of a person is part of the overall development of his personality. The contours of a sports-career become apparent. This sports-career is at the same time a social construction, as certain constituents and structures are culturally determined, and therefore also shared by others. But it is also the individual construction of the subject, who is competent to practice sport according to his own ideas and subjective interpretation (Baur, 1989).

The transformation of such a theoretical model with its basic socio-anthropological implications into a research concept can only be realized with the help of a multi-level analysis with its methodological consequences. On the one hand, we need methods to gather objective data on the formation and development of a sports-career. On the other hand, we need methods to find out about, and understand, subjective interpretations. This means that there is need for a combination of both quantitative and qualitative methods.

I would like to give you a few examples from one of my own studies on the sport of 13-to-19-year-old adolescents. I have chosen adolescents because this group is most interesting for physical education teachers. This does not mean that I have doubts about the relevance of other groups for sport pedagogy. My pedagogical reasoning for such an analysis is: Someone who does not know what the sport of adolescents looks like, or where adolescents have experiences with sport and which importance they attach to these experiences cannot understand, let alone teach, the sport of adolescents adequately.

The Sport of Adolescents and Adolescents in Sport

The sport of adolescents is at present in a process of change which is evident on many levels; on the level of participants, the kinds of sporting-activities, the underlying motive-structures, and the integration of sporting activities into the individual lifestyles (Kamphorst/Roberts, 1990).

We must take leave of the myth of a unified sports culture. The sport of adolescents has many faces. We must get to know them and learn to read in them. Sport, in its various manifestations outside of pedagogical institutions, is a central point of reference for the planning of physical education.

Just as there is no unified sports culture, adolescents do not have a uniform concept of sport. All in all, the concepts of sport have become more differentiated. It would be easy to show to which extent this development is linked with individualization trends in society. They give adolescents more options to organize their own biography individually, and thus lead to a greater plurality of lifestyles and sports concepts (Brettschneider, 1990; Brettschneider & Brautigam, 1990).

On the Way to Practice -- Consequences of the Socio-Anthropological Approach

With these data we have differentiated findings on the nature of adolescent sport. We know what adolescents look for in sport, what they find, and also what they are actually doing. But yet we cannot deduce prescriptive statements from descriptive findings. We face the distinctive characteristic of our disciplines which is to be in-between descriptive and prescriptive system. For our pedagogical interventions we need both: We need knowledge concerning adolescent sports culture and we need norms; we need a pedagogical filter.

Referring to our theoretical framework which saw the individual constituting his development in interaction with the social factor sport, some conclusions for physical education can be drawn: It will be self-evident for teachers to concentrate not only on the strong and average student or on the weaker student. Teachers will have to think of the whole range of different groups and types of adolescents. All of them have the same right to do, and also to enjoy sports. A student will only be interested, and stay interested in sport, if sporting-activities can be integrated into his life, and are compatible with his other values and orientations to life. A one-sided understanding of the "proper" sport can seriously jeopardize a person's chance to become interested in sport. Sport is -- as we have shown so far -- not a uniform and consistent phenomenon in itself, but a phenomenon with many facets. Whoever wishes to bring together individual and society, and sees movement and body on the one side and the social factor sport on the other side as central reference points for pedagogical decisions, will have to take into account the consequences of one's own position in educational practice. Physical education lessons will need to be arranged in such a way that sport, in all its various manifestations and will all its different meanings, becomes understandable and available for as many students as possible.

The pedagogical norm for the arrangement of physical education lessons in such an understanding aims at educating youths to and through sport. It aims at the "ability to act in the various fields of sport." This ability has three dimensions which can be distinguished for the purpose of analysis, but which in reality are related (Lange, 1977; Kurz, 1990a).

1. The *operational* dimension:
   Here the intention is to teach participants a broad and flexible repertoire of abilities, patterns of movement and skills. They should guarantee access to the whole realm of movement, games and sport. They should also enable them to have experiences with their own body which go beyond athletic activities.

2. The *communicative* dimension:
   Here the intention is to make it easier for participants to understand and also to practice sport in varying situations and social contexts, and with different meaningful orientations. In short: to recognize sport as a part of our socially constructed reality.

3. The *discursive* dimension:
   Here the intention is to keep a distance to sport, and to teach participants to be critical of the reality of sport, for example of the ideas of the sport federations, the influence of economic interests, the demands of the media. This way we shall be able to protect the principle of openness in sport.

Some brief explanations may help to clarify this multi-dimensional aim, what has been called "ability to act." Action is meaningful conduct, often also conduct in search of meaning. Skiing, body-building or volleyball are not simply meaningful in themselves. It is people that give these activities meaning. Therefore we must ask ourselves some questions (Kurz, 1990a).

The first question is: What do young people look for in sport and which meanings do they attach a sport activities and athletic actions? In accordance with other recent studies on adolescent sport our own findings show that first of all they participate in sport for the sake of fun and enjoyment. They do sport for the sake of exercise and physical well-being. They hope that sport will have a positive effect on their fitness, their health and their figure. People wish to express something by moving; they would like their movements to be masterly, impressive and aesthetic. They see sport as a field of action in which they can set themselves a task, compare themselves with others and reach the limits of their own possibilities. In sport adolescents look for situations which are exciting. They are looking for the feel of risk and adventure, the enjoyment of uncertainty, and afterwards, the feeling of relief. In sport adolescents also see an opportunity to enjoy the company of other people in an atmosphere which makes it easy to communicate.

Each of these answers refers to the subjective appeal of sport -- but, for the time being, without a pedagogical filter. Therefore, the second question we must answer refers to the pedagogical possibilities which might be important for the development and the well-being of people. It is incompatible with the pedagogical task of education to restrict students to certain meanings, while other meanings are cut out. In principle, all meanings described above are of equal value. The competence to act is therefore always also: to have certain meaningful perspectives together with patterns of action at one's disposal (Kurz, 1990a). Do we succeed in following this pedagogical guideline? This seems doubtful.

The next question is: How should the multi-perspective principle be put into practice? There are different ways: We can have a look which sectors of the field of sport, which kinds of sport are most suitable for specific experiences. For example, dancing for the aesthetic experience, games for the communicative perspective and swimming for special sensuous experiences. The result would be a curriculum, well-balanced with regard to the range of activities and their meanings. This suggestion is not new. But if we follow our multi-perspective principle it would also be possible to teach certain kinds of sport with a view to various kinds of meaningful perspectives. For example, certain disciplines of athletics or swimming could be arranged not only under the aspect of achievement and competition, but also with a view to sensation and enjoyment connected with movement or physical fitness and general well-being. This would of course mean changing the face of the institutionalized forms of sport we have become so familiar with. And what is true of reglemented kinds of sport is also true of informal athletic activities. For example, in school, jumping, throwing or running could, with a bit of imagination, be arranged in such a way that students can experience many different perspectives. Such a lesson will certainly require a broader concept of sport. It may possibly require radical rethinking.

Conclusion

Here ends my attempt to exemplify how to go about conducting sport pedagogical research in such a way as to meet academical demands as well as pedagogical responsibilities.

Instead of a summary, I would like to add a few general comments on the future development of sport pedagogy:

What can and what must we do to use these chances in the interest of sport pedagogy?

There can be no doubt: Sport pedagogy has a special responsibility for the arrangement of sport in schools. Nevertheless, we have to know about the reality of sport not only within, but also outside of schools. We have to enhance our endeavors to understand that an increasing number of people no longer accept the institutional meaning of sport, but attach great importance to their subjective understanding of sport.

We must put emphasis on the discussion of the normative pedagogical-anthropological reference points according to which we aim to arrange sport -- a discussion which has been neglected in some countries, and has not even begun in others.

While bearing in mind these pedagogical points of reference, we must try to find an attitude in sport, which combines commitment with critical detachment. And this means commitment and critical detachment to sport in its historically developed institutionalized forms, as well as in its informal manifestations.

We must look into our neighboring disciplines and examine their paradigms, methods and advice for the analysis and arrangement of sport (Tinning, 1990; Kurz, 1990b). But we should keep in mind that it is not the nature of knowledge that is the central issue of sport pedagogy, but it is the view of man, though both issues are clearly related (Siedentop, 1987).

Finally, sport pedagogy should not attempt to establish an independent scientific profile at the expense of its practical credibility. Sport pedagogy should rather help to forward the development of practice in its various areas of application.

To keep a balance between academic demands and pedagogical responsibility, and at the same time not to lose sight of the bridge to practice, is the great challenge sport pedagogy presently faces. The best way to tackle the many tasks deriving from this challenge would be together, together in an international dialogue of the scientific community as well as in a dialogue between researchers and practitioners.

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